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ABSTRACT

This book discusses state child care and early childhood education policies, particularly their relationship to the economy. It provides a framework for policymakers who are deliberating child care and early childhood education policies; outlines the range of recent state legislation; describes initiatives of Massachusetts and Washington; and suggests ways of integrating child care and early childhood education policy approaches on the state level. State child care policies have been implemented for the purposes of reducing the cost of child care; contributing to the expansion, accessibility, and quality of child care; and providing support to parents in education and training programs. State funding of early childhood education has grown considerably over the past decade. But in most cases, state implementation of early childhood education programs is limited in scope and takes the form of half-day programs. State early childhood education programs seldom provide comprehensive services. Recently enacted state legislation illustrates an emerging trend toward expanded services. State policymakers are considering pctential benefits of expanding child care and early childhood education policies under a comprehensive approach to a state's economy. Two tables provide state-by-state information on regulation of child care centers and family day care. Citations number 88. (RH)

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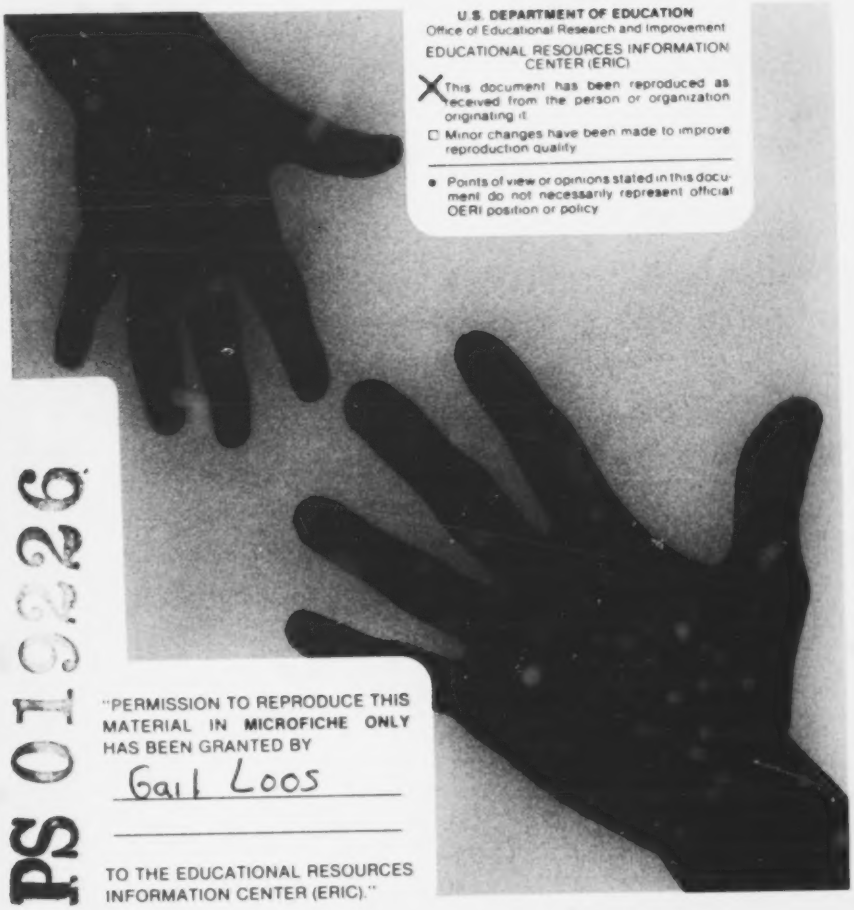
A Legislator's Guide



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Child Care and Early Childhood Education Policy:

A Legislator's Guide

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Executive Summary

Within the context of the social, political, and economic changes of the past decade, child care and early childhood education have emerged as critical policy issues with significant implications for the economic health and well-being of this nation. Central to these changes has been the tremendous influx of mothers into the labor force, as well as a growing recognition of the importance of early learning experiences as the basis for success and productivity in adulthood.

Child care and early childhood education policies directly influence the productivity of the current work force and the preparedness of the future work force. Therefore, policies that support families and provide a sound foundation for development of young children influence a state's economy in several key ways. Among these are increasing the number of employed and employable individuals in order to attract and keep business in a state, increasing consumer spending, increasing tax revenues, and reducing dependence on other social and supportive services.

Recognizing the short- and long-term economic benefits of quality early childhood programs, state legislatures have assumed a pivotal leadership role in developing early childhood programs in recent years. At least 29 states currently fund preschool initiatives, almost all enacted in recent years. In 1987 32 states passed approximately 125 pieces of legislation related to child care and early childhood education.

This book presents an in-depth look at state child care and early childhood education policies with emphasis on their relationship to the economy. It provides a framework for policymakers who are deliberating child care and early childhood education policies, outlines the range of recent state legislation, describes two states' initiatives (Massachusetts and Washington), and suggests ways of integrating child care and early childhood education policy approaches on the state level.

Child Care and Economic Well-Being

For families at all economic levels, the need for child care is great and likely to grow. Today, 52 percent of all mothers of infants and 60 percent of mothers whose youngest child is between the ages of two and five work outside the home. By 1990, 55 percent of all mothers with children under age six and 75 percent of all

mothers with children aged six to 18 are expected to be in the labor force.

Child care occurs in a variety of settings, including day care centers, family day care homes, homes of relatives, the child's own home, and for older children, schools. Regardless of the setting, however, most families needing child care confront similar difficulties. Child care is hard to find, the cost is high, the quality is inconsistent, and the arrangements are often undependable and unstable. These difficulties may constrain working parents and produce social and economic costs for the family and the state.

The inability to find acceptable and affordable child care may prevent people from entering the work force, and inadequate child care may reduce their productivity while on the job. Inadequate child care may limit a parent's ability to complete education and training programs leading to better employment opportunities. Especially for single parents, child care is a critical link to economic self-sufficiency, productivity, and independence from public assistance support.

State child care policies demonstrate a broad array of strategies designed to assist families. Such policies have been implemented to reduce the costs of child care; to contribute to the expansion, accessibility, and quality of child care; and to provide support to parents in education and training programs.

Policies that *reduce the cost of child care* include:

- Direct subsidies to low-income families;
- Tax credits or deductions for child care expenses;
- Tax incentives for employers who assist their employees with child care; and
- Direct child care assistance for state employees.

Policies that *promote quality, expansion, and accessibility of child care* include:

- Regulation and monitoring of child care;
- Salary increases for child care providers in state-operated programs;
- Financial support and implementation of training programs for child care providers;
- Financial support of resource and referral networks to aid families in locating child care, provide training for providers, and assist employers in implementing child care support for their employees;
- Direct assistance to providers to help pay for operating costs, including liability insurance;

- Loan or grant programs for start-up, construction, or renovation of child care facilities; and
- Tax incentives for facility expansion or renovation.

Policies that *support parents in education and training programs* include:

- Child care subsidies for parents while they participate in "welfare-to-work" programs;
- Subsidies for "transitional child care" during the early months of employment for parents who have completed welfare-to-work training programs;
- Funding of child care assistance for teenage parents, including school-based child care programs;
- Child care assistance as part of adult literacy programs; and
- Subsidies for low-income parents enrolled in high school equivalency, vocational education, and undergraduate- and graduate-level programs in colleges and universities.

Child care policies in Massachusetts provide an example of a broad approach to child care needs of families at various economic levels. These policies reflect a commitment to ensuring more affordable, more accessible, and higher-quality child care throughout the state. Massachusetts provides subsidies and loans to low-income families, as well as an extensive system of child care support—including up to 12 months of transitional child care—for public assistance recipients who participate in the state's work-training program, Employment and Training (E.T.) Choices.

Child care policies in Massachusetts also emphasize private sector involvement, provide direct child care for many state employees, support resource and referral networks across the state, and provide salary supplements and training funds for providers. In addition, Massachusetts' policies demonstrate an orientation toward coordinating child care and early childhood education services to meet the needs of children and their families more efficiently and effectively.

Evidence of the economic benefits of child care for both the business sector and the state is growing. Research suggests that all employers, including the state, can benefit from lower absenteeism, lower employee turnover, less employee stress, greater productivity, higher employee morale, and less costly recruitment by providing child care assistance. Research also suggests that state spending on child care for the working poor can provide substantial state benefits.

Early Childhood Education: Foundation for Later Productivity

In broad terms, early childhood education occurs in all settings as part of the normal developmental process, whether the setting is the family, a child care arrangement, or the schools. The primary goal of early childhood education is to promote the child's development through stimulating and enriching activities. Because of programmatic and policy developments of the past several years, *early childhood education* often connotes half-day programs for three- or four-year-olds in a group setting. By 1985, nearly 40 percent of all three- and four-year-olds in this country were enrolled in early childhood education programs.

Research into the effects of early childhood education demonstrates that high-quality early childhood education programs for economically disadvantaged children can contribute to higher levels of success in school; greater achievement motivation and higher vocational aspirations; lower teenage pregnancy rates, lower delinquency rates, less welfare dependence; and higher employment rates. Cost-benefit analyses of early childhood education programs also provide convincing evidence related to the economic benefits of these programs. These analyses suggest that the state can, over the long run, realize a savings of $4.75 for every one dollar spent on quality early childhood education. These savings are estimated to accrue through reduced spending on special education, lower welfare costs, reduced spending through the juvenile and adult justice system, and greater consumer spending and tax revenues resulting from higher expected earnings of the population of children who attend early childhood education programs.

Often seen as a way of helping ameliorate the negative effects of economic and social disadvantage, federal and state early childhood education initiatives have become increasingly popular for "at-risk" children. The largest federal program, Head Start, provides comprehensive services, including early childhood education, to low-income children; but Head Start serves only 16 percent of those eligible.

State funding of early childhood education has grown considerably over the past decade, with over half of the states supporting these programs. In most cases, however, state implementation of early childhood education programs is limited in scope and usually takes the form of half-day programs. Unlike Head Start, state early childhood education programs usually focus on educational enrichment and do not provide comprehensive services. In general, state programs are administered by departments of education.

Most state programs are operated through the public schools, although many states permit schools to contract for early childhood education with other agencies, including child care centers. In some cases, states provide supplemental funds to Head Start. In a few instances, state early childhood education programs are designed as parent education programs.

Recently enacted state early childhood education legislation illustrates an emerging trend toward an expanded view of these services. In several cases, newer initiatives include provisions to promote coordination of early childhood education programs with other services including child care. These initiatives also often specify that early childhood education must address comprehensive needs similar to those mandated through Head Start, rather than merely addressing the child's educational needs.

The enactment and implementation of Washington state's Early Childhood Education Assistance Program (ECEAP) demonstrate a policy that grew out of the recognition of the social and economic benefits of early childhood education to at-risk children. ECEAP originally gained support as part of a strategy to reform education and upgrade the future work force in Washington. This program targets children from low-income families who are not served by Head Start, requires parental involvement, and provides a range of services beyond education that include social, health, nutritional, and cultural development. The program is administered through the Department of Community Development in the form of competitive grants. Coordination of ECEAP with Head Start, the public schools, and other preschool programs is a theme repeated in the legislation.

Conclusions and Policy Recommendations

As a result of the growing numbers of working mothers and the increased emphasis on providing early education to preschool children, over half of the young children in this nation today spend a significant amount of their time in child care and preschool programs. Both child care and early childhood education policies have immediate and far-reaching implications for the economic well-being of the nation and our families. Unfortunately, policies in these areas too often have developed in an uncoordinated and fragmented fashion.

Increasingly, state policymakers are considering the potential benefits of expanding and coordinating child care and early childhood education policies under a comprehensive approach to a state's economy. This approach could ensure that all children in child care and early childhood education settings receive enriched learning experiences as a foundation for later productivity and also could provide parents with the critical support needed to become self-sufficient, productive citizens.

I

Child Care and Early Childhood Education

Significant social and economic changes of the past several decades have affected the expectations that we, as a nation, have for young children and the way in which we support families in providing for the care and well-being of their children. Central to these changes have been the dramatic growth of labor force participation of mothers of young children and the recognition of the importance of early experiences on the child's future success and productivity.

Experience and research from both the public and private sectors demonstrate the link between child care and early childhood education policies and the economy. Policies that support child care for working parents and that stimulate child development and learning through early childhood education can have a positive impact on the productivity of the current work force and the preparedness of the future work force.

Recognizing the short- and long-term economic benefits of quality early childhood programs, state legislatures have assumed a pivotal leadership role in developing early childhood programs in recent years. At least 29 states currently fund preschool initiatives,

almost all enacted in recent years. In 1987 32 states passed approximately 125 pieces of legislation related to child care and early childhood education [Smith, 1988].

In the absence of federal leadership, policymakers increasingly are concerned with developing early childhood public policy at the state level. This book presents an in-depth look at state child care and early childhood education policies with emphasis on their relationship to the economy, both in terms of the economic well-being of families and the productivity and prosperity of the states. It provides a framework for policymakers who are deliberating child care and early childhood education policies, outlines the range of recent state initiatives, and suggests integrating child care and early childhood education policy approaches on the state level.

What Is Child Care?

In the most basic terms, *child care* is an arrangement in which someone other than the parents care for the child while they are working, in training, or in educational programs. Historically, the primary goal of child care policy has been to support the family so that parents can work and be self-sufficient. A secondary goal has been to meet the needs of children in these nonfamily situations. Too often these needs have been conceived narrowly, focusing on basic health and safety. Increasingly, however, children's needs in child care settings are defined to include developmental and educational opportunities.

Child care itself occurs in a variety of settings. According to a recent survey by the Bureau of the Census, the most common form of child care for preschool children occurred in someone else's home—either a family day care home or a relative's home (37 percent). Thirty-one percent of all children covered in the survey received care in their own homes by a sitter, nanny, relative, or friend. Twenty-three percent participated in organized child care, including both child care centers and nursery schools. Eight percent were cared for by the mother herself while she was working, either at home or in the office [U.S. Bureau of the Census, May 1987]. In addition to these statistics, an estimated six to seven million children, ranging in age from preschool to school-age, are unsupervised "latch-key" kids who care for themselves and their siblings while their parents are working.

Child care arrangements, including family day care homes, child care centers, and nursery schools, can be defined as providing either custodial or developmental care. *Custodial care* is child care without an organized curriculum or philosophical basis to guide program

activities. *Developmental care*, on the other hand, is based on principles of child development and the care is structured to provide enriching experiences for children. The emphasis of developmental child care programs may differ, with some stressing social interaction and others stressing intellectual development. Some of these programs are highly structured, others are not.

States generally regulate child care arrangements as part of the social welfare system. No federal standards govern child care, and regulations vary considerably from state to state. Regulation of both child care centers and family day care homes is designed primarily to ensure that such facilities provide safe environments for children. State regulations establish and enforce *minimal acceptable criteria* for legal operation of child care facilities and do not necessarily reflect high-quality standards. (See Tables 1 and 2.)

Child care centers serve groups of children, and in nearly all states, the majority of these centers must have licenses to operate. Exceptions to licensure generally include church programs, educational programs run by public or private schools, part-day nursery schools, recreational programs, programs run by governmental agencies, and programs for school-aged children. Licensing standards often establish class size, staff-to-child ratios, space requirements (e.g., number of square feet per child), basic health and safety requirements, and staff qualifications. Almost all states require that centers provide developmental programs, with several states requiring age-appropriate activities [Morgan, 1986].

Unlike child care centers, the regulation of family day care homes is often less formal, although most states require either licensing or registration of family day care homes. Both registration and licensing have mandatory standards. A registration system, however, permits family day care homes to operate during the period in which an application for registration is pending, while a licensing system does not. Oversight, such as required on-site inspections, for registered homes is frequently less stringent than for licensed homes. In a few states, homes may choose to be either licensed or registered. In five states, family day care homes are not required to meet either licensing or registration standards [Morgan, 1986].

Determining how many children can be cared for in a family day care home differs greatly across the country. In 1986, the majority of states limited the number of children in such homes to five, six, or seven. In addition, 26 states defined them as homes in which care was provided for at least one unrelated child. In 23 states, homes providing care for three or more children and, in nine states, for five or more children were included under the regulatory system. In some states, registration applies only to those homes caring for children receiving state subsidies [Morgan, 1986].

Table 1.

State Regulation of Child Care Centers

State	Permitted Age of Entry	Child: Staff Ratios[1]			Group Size Permitted[1]			Criminal/ Child Abuse Records Checked		Preservice Training Required			Health/ First Aid Training Required for Staff		Inspections Per Year
		Up to 1 Yr. Old	3 Yrs. Old	5 Yrs. Old	Up to 1 Yr. Old	3 Yrs. Old	5 Yrs. Old	Criminal Records Checked	Child Abuse Registry Checked	Directors	Teachers	Assistants	Health	First Aid	
Alabama	3 wks.	6:1	10:1	20:1	6	10	20	Yes	No	Yes	No	Unknown	No	No	1
Alaska	6 wks.	5:1	10:1	15:1	NR	NR	NR	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	1 per 2 yrs.
Arizona	NR	5:1 or 11:2	13:1	13:1	NR	NR	NR	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	2
Arkansas	6 wks.	6:1	12:1	18:1	NR	NR	NR	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	3-4
California	NR	4:1	12:1	12:1	NR	NR	NR	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	1
Colorado	6 wks.	5:1	10:1	15:1	10	NR	NR	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	1 per 2 yrs.
Connecticut	4 wks.	4:1	10:1	10:1	8	20	20	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	1 per 2 yrs.
Delaware	NR	5:1	15:1	20:1	NR	NR	NR	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	1
Florida	NR	6:1	15:1	25:1	NR	NR	NR	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	4
Georgia	NR	7:1	15:1	20:1	NR	NR	NR	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	4
Hawaii	2 yrs.	Under 2 prob.	16:1	20:1	NR	NR	NR	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	1-3
Idaho	6 wks.	6:1	10:1	15:1	NR	NR	NR	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	1
Illinois	3 mos.	4:1	10:1	20:1 or 30:2	12	20	30	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	1
Indiana	NR	4:1	12:1	15:1	8	NR	NR	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	3
Iowa	2 wks.	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	1

Kansas	2 wks.	3:1	12:1 or 10:1	14:1 or 12:1	9	24 or 20	28 or 24	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Unknown
Kentucky	NR	6:1	12:1	15:1	NR	NR	NR	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	1
Louisiana	NR	6:1	14:1	20:1	NR	NR	NR	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	1
Maine	6 wks.	4:1	10:1	10:1	12	NR	NR	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	1
Maryland	8 wks.	3:1	10:1	13:1	6	20	26	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	1
Massachusetts	NR	3:1 or 7:2	10:1	15:1	7	30	NR	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Unknown
Michigan	2 wks.	4:1	10:1	12:1	NR	NR	NR	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	1
Minnesota	6 wks.	4:1	10:1	10:1	8	20	20	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Unknown
Mississippi	NR	5:1	14:1	20:1	NR	NR	NR	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	2
Missouri	6 wks.	4:1	10:1	16:1	8	NR	NR	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	2
Montana	NR	4:1	8:1	10:1	NR	NR	NR	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	1
Nebraska	6 wks.	4:1	10:1	15:1	NR	NR	NR	Yes	N/A	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	2
Nevada	NR	6:1	10:1	10:1	NR	NR	NR	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	4
New Hampshire	6 wks.	4:1	8:1	15:1	8	NR	NR	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	3 per 2 yrs.
New Jersey	NR	4:1	15:1	NC	NR	NR	NR	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	1 per 3 yrs.
New Mexico	6 wks.	6:1	15:1	20:1	NR	NR	NR	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	2
New York	8 wks.	4:1	6:1 or 7:1	8:1 or 9:1	8	18 or 14	24 or 18	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	1
North Carolina	NR	7:1	15:1	25:1	14	25	25	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	3
North Dakota	NR	4:1	7:1	12:1	NR	NR	NR	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	2
Ohio	NR	6:1	12:1	14:1	12	24	28	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	2
Oklahoma	NR	6:1	12:1	15:1	NR	NR	NR	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	4
Oregon	6 wks	4:1	10:1	15:1	8	20	30	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	1
Pennsylvania	NR	4:1	10:1	10:1	NR	NR	NR	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	1
Rhode Island	6 wks.	4:1	15:1	20:1	4	15	25	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	1
South Carolina	NR	8:1	15:1	25:1	NR	NR	NR	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	Varies

Table 1.

(continued)

State	Permitted Age of Entry	Child: Staff Ratios[1]			Group Size Permitted[1]			Criminal/ Child Abuse Records Checked		Preservice Training Required			Health/ First Aid Training Required for Staff		Inspections Per Year
		Up to 1 Yr. Old	3 Yrs. Old	5 Yrs. Old	Up to 1 Yr. Old	3 Yrs. Old	5 Yrs. Old	Criminal Records Checked	Child Abuse Registry Checked	Directors	Teachers	Assistants	Health	First Aid	
South Dakota	NR	5:1	10:1	10:1	20	20	20	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	1-12
Tennessee	NR	5:1	10:1	25:1	10	20	25	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	2
Texas	NR	5:1 or 12:2	15:1 or 17:1	22:1 or 24:1	5 or 12	35	35	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	2
Utah	NR	4:1	15:1	20:1	8	25	25	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	3
Vermont	NR	4:1	10:1	10:1	8	20	20	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	2
Virginia	NR	4:1	10:1	12:1	NR	NR	NR	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	2
Washington	4 wks.	4:1	10:1	10:1	8	20	20	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	1
West Virginia	NR	4:1	10:1	15:1	NR	NR	NR	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	1
Wisconsin	4 wks.	4:1	10:1	17:1	8	20	32	No	No	Yes	Yes	Unknown	Yes	No	Varies
Wyoming	3 mos.	5:1	10:1	20:1	NR	NR	NR	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	1

NR = Not regulated
N/A = Not applicable
NC = Not covered

Notes:
1. Entries denoting more than one ratio or permitted group size are usually the result of state requirements concerning the mix of ages in the group and other factors.

Source of Data: Gwen Morgan, *The National State of Child Care Regulation 1986*, Work/Family Directions, Inc. This information consists of 1986 data. Table prepared by the Division of State Employment Standards Programs, Office of State Liaison and Legislative Analysis, Employment Standards Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, February 18, 1988.

In addition to family day care homes, over half the states permit and regulate group family day care homes [Morgan, 1986]. *Group family day care homes* are home-based settings caring for up to 12 children with at least two adults providing care and supervision.

State regulatory standards for family day care homes and group family day care homes often prescribe maximum group size, child-to-caregiver ratios, numbers of infants and toddlers, and define how school-aged children and the providers' own children are counted in the ratio of children to caregiver [Morgan, 1986].

Despite state regulatory initiatives, the majority of family day care, the most common form of child care, occurs outside the formal child care system. An estimated 60 to 90 percent of family day care homes throughout the country are neither licensed nor registered and, therefore, go unregulated [Children's Foundation, 1988].

Who Needs Child Care?

Traditionally, the state's role in child care has been to provide a supportive service to low-income or welfare mothers. Today, a much broader population of parents also needs child care. The perception of child care solely as part of the state welfare program is no longer accurate.

The nature of family life in the 1980s suggests that parents at all economic levels need child care services. In the mid-1980s, only 3.7 percent of American households fit the traditional model of a two-parent family in which the father works outside the home and the mother stays home to care for the children. Today, one in five children lives in a single- parent household, with 64.7 percent of single mothers in the labor force. In 56 percent of married-couple families, both partners work. Fifty-two percent of all mothers with infants one year old or younger work, and 60 percent of all mothers whose youngest child is between two and five years old are in the labor force. Nearly 72 percent of mothers with children aged six to 13 hold jobs [U.S. Bureau of the Census, March 1987]. The high employment rates of mothers of young children today indicate a well-established trend. Figure 1 shows the steady growth of women in the labor force from 1950 to 1985. Demographers predict that by 1990, 80 percent of two-parent families will have both parents in the labor force, with 55 percent of all mothers with children under age six and 75 percent of all mothers with children aged six to 18 working.

Table 2.

State Regulation of Family Day Care

State	Type of Regulation	Minimum Size To Be Covered	Maximum Size Before Becoming Group Home or Center	Number of Children Under Age 2 Permitted with 1 Caretaker[1]	Preservice Training Required	Child Abuse Records Checked		Inspections Per Year
						Criminal Records Checked	Abuse Registry Checked	
Alabama	L	1	6	6	Yes	Yes	No	1
Alaska	L	4	6	2 under 30 mos.	No	No	No	1 per 2 yrs.
Arizona	[2]	1	NR	NR	No	No	No	2
Arkansas	L	6	16	Varies	No	No	No	3-4
California	L	1	6	3-4	No	Yes	Yes	10% sample
Colorado	L	1	6	2	Yes	Yes	Yes	33% sample
Connecticut	L	1	6	2	No	Yes	No	1 per 2 yrs.
Delaware	L	1	6	4	Yes	No	Yes	1
Florida	L (County) R (State)	1	5	No limit	Yes	Yes	Yes	2
Georgia	R	3	6	6	Yes	Yes	No	3% sample
Hawaii	R	3	5	2	Yes	Yes	No	1
Idaho[3]	L	NR	4	2	No	No	No	1
Illinois	L	4	8	3	No	Yes	Yes	1
Indiana	L	5	10	No limit	No	No	No	1
Iowa	R (vol.)	1	6	4	No	Yes	Yes	20% sample

Kansas	L	1	10	Varies	No	Yes	Yes	Unknown
Kentucky	L	4	Varies w/age	No limit	No	Yes	No	1
Louisiana	None	NR	NR	NR	No	No	No	0
Maine	L or R	3	12	3-4	No	No	Yes	1
Maryland	R	1	6	2	No	No	No	1
Massachusetts	R	1	6	2	Yes	Yes	No	Unknown
Michigan	R	1	6	2	No	Yes	Yes	0
Minnesota	L	1	10	3 (30 mos.)	Yes	Yes	No	Unknown
Mississippi	L	6	15	Varies	No	No	No	2
Missouri	L	5	10	2	No	Yes	Yes	2
Montana	R	1	6	3	No	No	No	15% sample
Nebraska	R	4	8	2-4	No	Yes	Unknown	5% per mo.
Nevada	L	5	6	4	Yes	Yes	No	4
New Hampshire	L	3	6	3	Yes	Yes	No	3 per 2 yrs.
New Jersey	L (vol.)	NR	NR	NR	No	No	No	1 per 3 yrs.
New Mexico	L	5	12	2	No	Yes	No	2
New York	L	3	6	2	No	No	Yes	1
North Carolina	R	1	5	No limit	No	No	No	Unknown
North Dakota	L	6	7 (4 under age 2)	4	No	No	Yes	2
Ohio	L[4]	1	12	4 under 18 mos.	No	No	No	2
Oklahoma	L	1	5	No limit	No	No	No	4
Oregon	L[4]	1	6	2	No	Yes	Yes	0
Pennsylvania	R	4	6	4	No	Yes	Yes	20% sample
Rhode Island	L	4	6	2	Yes	Yes	No	1 per 2 yrs.
South Carolina	R[2]	1	6	3	No	No	No	0

Table 2.

(continued)

State	Type of Regulation	Minimum Size To Be Covered	Maximum Size Before Becoming Group Home or Center	Number of Children Under Age 2 Permitted with 1 Caretaker[1]	Preservice Training Required	Child Abuse Records Checked		Inspections Per Year
						Criminal Records Checked	Abuse Registry Checked	
South Dakota	R[2]	1	12	No limit	No	No	Yes	1-12
Tennessee	L	5	7	4	No	Yes	Yes	2
Texas	R	4	12	Varies	No	Yes	No	0
Utah	L	1	6	2-3	Yes	Yes	Yes	1 per 2 yrs.
Vermont	L and R	1	6	2-3	No	No	No	2
Virginia	L	6	9	4	No	No	No	2
Washington	L	1	6	2	No	Yes	Yes	0
West Virginia	R (vol.)	1	7	No limit	No	Yes	No	1
Wisconsin	L[2]	4	8	3 under age 1	Yes	No	No	Varies
Wyoming	R	3	6	2	Yes	No	No	Varies

L = License R = Registration (vol.) = Voluntary NR = Not regulated

Notes:

1. Entries denoting a range in the number of children permitted are usually the result of state requirements concerning the mix of ages in the group and other factors.
2. *Arizona, South Carolina, South Dakota* and *Wisconsin:* Reportedly, only subsidized family day care is regulated.
3. *Idaho:* Secondary source information available at this time is contradictory with respect to family day care licensing requirements for this state.
4. *Ohio* and *Oregon:* Reportedly, family day care of fewer than six children is regulated only if subsidized.

Source of Data: Gwen Morgan, *The National State of Child Care Regulation 1986*, Work/Family Directions, Inc. This information consists of 1986 data. Table prepared by the Division of State Employment Standards Programs, Office of State Liaison and Legislative Analysis, Employment Standards Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, February 18, 1988.

Child care is the fourth largest budget expenditure for families at all economic levels, generally following food, housing, and taxes [Kahn and Kamerman, 1987]. The cost of child care varies substantially across the country and depends upon the type of care provided, the setting, and the rates the market will bear. According to the Children's Foundation, a national child advocacy organization based in Washington, D.C., day care costs for infants range from $50 to $110 per week; for toddlers and preschoolers, from $40 to $85 per week; before- and after-school care for older children, from $15 to $40 [Children's Foundation, 1988]. Weekly costs of center-based care range from $40 per child to $120. Families in this country annually spend an average of $3,000 per child for full-time child care, equivalent to one-third of the income for a family of three at the poverty level ["The Child Care Dilemma," 1987].

What Is Early Childhood Education?

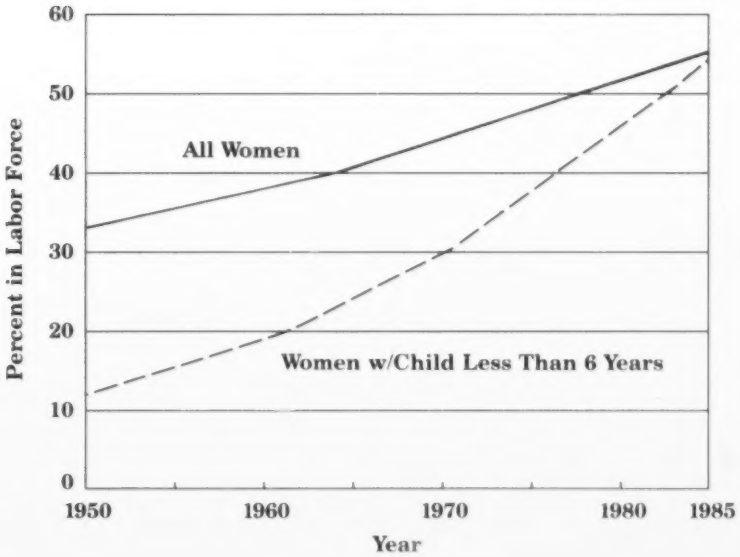
Since early childhood education occurs for all children as part of the normal developmental process, whether the setting is the family, a child care arrangement, or the schools, a growing number of professionals consider early childhood programs in a broad context as serving families with children from birth through age eight. Recent programmatic and policy developments, however, focus on early childhood education that frequently involves half-day programs in group settings for three- or four-year-old children.

The primary goal of early childhood education programs generally is to promote the child's development through stimulating and enriching activities. Many programs concentrate on social or intellectual development, and some emphasize parental involvement and education as critical aspects of the program. Early childhood education programs vary in philosophy and curriculum and range from a formal academic structure to a less formal, play-based model. Quality early childhood education programs are designed to meet the unique needs of young children and are not merely elementary school programs adapted to serve preschool-age children. Rarely do these early childhood education programs provide extended-day services to children of working parents.

The roots of contemporary early childhood education programs were half-day nursery school programs in the early 1900s that focused on social and emotional development for three- and four-year-olds. Originally, these programs were popular as enrichment experiences for middle-class children.

Figure 1.

Labor Force Participation for All Women and Women with Preschool Children 1950-1985



Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1988.

Since the 1960s, however, as a result of research and in response to a growing concern over the negative effects of poverty and economic disadvantage on the social and intellectual development of young children, the emphasis of early childhood education has shifted. During the 1960s and 1970s, an increasing body of research demonstrated that the early years, from birth to age five, are crucial to a child's intellectual, social, and emotional development. In addition to documenting the importance of a child's developmental experiences in the first five years of life, research also identified the different ways children learn at various stages of childhood and the need to provide developmentally appropriate experiences at these stages. Around this time, too, compensatory education programs became popular as a means of ameliorating the negative effects of poverty. One significant outgrowth of both these movements was the federal Head Start program established in 1965.

The Head Start program provides comprehensive services to preschool children from low-income families. It is funded with 80 percent federal monies requiring a 20 percent match. Head Start provides children with experiences designed to stimulate their intellectual development and curiosity, to contribute to their overall development and well-being, and to support their families. The focal point of Head Start is a half-day preschool education program, but other key components include medical and dental services, health services, parental involvement, and social services. Head Start is administered by local community-based organizations ranging from nonprofit groups to the public schools. In addition to half-day programs, some Head Start programs operate on a full-day schedule. Head Start also administers programs for children of migrant workers, programs for Native American children, and parent-child centers for infants and toddlers [Kahn and Kamerman, 1987]. Extensive research has shown that Head Start provides a firm foundation for success in school, and beyond, for children from low-income families ["Head Start," 1984].

In 1988, the Head Start Bureau estimated that only 17 percent of eligible children were served by its program, with the majority of those being from minority groups. Program figures showed that of the children enrolled in 1988, 39 percent were black, 22 percent were Hispanic, 4 percent were American Indian, 3 percent were Asian, and 32 percent were white ["Project Head Start Statistical Fact Sheet," 1988].

In addition to Head Start, the federal government participates in other locally administered early childhood education programs. The federal government has supported preschool programs in the public schools through the use of federal funds administered under Chapter I of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1980. These funds are targeted to low-income schools having students with low achievement. Participation by school districts is optional. Approximately 19 percent of all school districts using Chapter I funds provide prekindergarten programs [Birman et al., 1987].

New federal preschool initiatives also were authorized under the Elementary and Secondary Education Reauthorization Act of 1988 (ESERA). These new programs include early childhood education programs for Native Hawaiian and Native American children. Demonstration projects are authorized for comprehensive early childhood education programs beginning prenatally and extending through the preschool years [Stephan, 1988].

Federal funding for these programs, however, remains limited. The largest federal support for preschool efforts comes through the Head Start program, with $1.2 billion provided in Fiscal Year 1988

[Goodman and Brady, 1988]. The bulk of ESERA funds, including Chapter I dollars, is used for elementary and secondary education.

Most early childhood education programs are privately operated. In the past decade, however, states have increased their involvement in early childhood education programs, primarily for children at risk of academic and social failure. Currently, 28 states finance preschool programs. In addition, Alaska, Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Washington support Head Start programs with state revenues [Goodman and Brady, 1988]. State preschool programs often differ from the Head Start model in child-to-caregiver ratios, in parental involvement efforts, and in the area of additional support services. State early childhood education programs often are implemented on a small scale and located either in the schools or in community-based child care facilities [Gnezda and Sonnier, 1988; Gnezda and Robison, 1986].

Who Attends Early Childhood Education Programs?

In its publication, "Preschool Enrollment: Trends and Implications" [Pendleton, 1986], the Center for Education Statistics of the U.S. Department of Education reports that enrollment in preschool programs grew from 21 percent of all three- and four-year-olds in 1970 to 39 percent in 1985. Preschool programs in this report included any regular or special school program lasting at least two hours a day with an instructional component. The growth in enrollment in early childhood education programs is attributed to two major factors: an increased recognition of the importance of the early years in a child's development and the rise in labor force participation of mothers of young children.

Of the 39 percent of children enrolled in early childhood education programs, white children are more likely to attend private preschools and black children are more likely to attend public ones. The center's report further suggests that the majority of children living in poverty is not enrolled in preschools [Pendleton, 1986].

Children from families with higher incomes are more likely than children from families with lower incomes to be in preschool programs, according to a recent report of the National Association of State Boards of Education. The report indicates that less than 33 percent of four-year-olds from families with incomes of less than $10,000 were enrolled in preschool programs in 1985, com-

pared with 67 percent of four-year-olds whose families earned $35,000 a year or more [*Right from the Start*, 1988].

Labor force participation of mothers also is related to preschool enrollment of three- and four-year-olds, with part-time employment more often related to preschool enrollment for white children and full-time employment related to enrollment for black children. At the same time, a significant increase in the attendance of four-year-olds between 1975 and 1984 reflected greater enrollment of children whose mothers were not employed outside the home [Pendleton, 1986]. These statistics suggest that different types of families are interested in providing early educational experiences for their young children, with the distinct difference between enrollment in public and private programs related to family economic status and race.

Integration of Child Care and Early Childhood Education

Although child care and early childhood education programs are designed to meet different social goals—child care to enable parents to work; early childhood education to provide stimulating learning experiences for young children—these goals need not be discrete. Both child care and early childhood education programs serve young children who have the same basic developmental needs. In addition to physical needs, children also require consistency and predictability in their daily routine, nurturance, and hands-on experience with the environment to stimulate their social, emotional, and intellectual development.

Early experiences influence a child's ability to form positive relationships with adults and peers, affect a child's motivation and excitement toward learning, and provide the foundation for a child's intellectual development. The nature of early experiences also contributes to a child's competence in school, as well as to a child's motivation, achievement, and productivity as an adult.

Research and practice have proved that quality programs for young children possess certain features that are applicable both to early childhood education programs and child care settings. Findings from the National Day Care Study, conducted by ABT Associates in 1979, suggest that for preschool-age children, three factors directly relate to program quality. These are: (1) specific child-related training or education for caregivers/teachers; (2) small numbers of children in a group or class (e.g., between 15 and 20 per group for preschoolers); and (3) teacher-child ratios

ranging from 1:4 for infants to 1:10 for preschool children in group settings [Roupp et al., 1979].

Other research supports these conclusions and shows that child care staff with specific training provide more stimulating learning experiences for children, provide more comforting responses, demonstrate less punitive behavior, and exhibit more appropriate involvement with children than child care staff with no training.

Small group size produces more constructive behavior between children and child care staff. Children enrolled in programs with smaller class size showed more acceptable social interactions, engaged in more conversations, and were more cooperative with strangers than those in larger groups. Research conducted in both child care centers and family day care homes also demonstrates that adult-child ratios contribute significantly to program quality. Smaller numbers of children to adults lead to more adult-child interactions, less restrictive behavior, more warmth and nurturance, and more play [Phillips, 1987]. In addition, continuity of care by the same caregivers enables children to form trusting bonds with individual adults [Willer, 1987].

Child care and early childhood education programs also can improve the development of the children served through assistance and support to their parents. One of the strengths of the Head Start program is its emphasis upon parental involvement. Some early childhood education programs include home visits where child care professionals assist parents in providing home environments that stimulate child development.

Traditionally, legislatures have handled child care and early childhood policies independently of each other because their goals have been separate and they have been delegated to different legislative committees. But now many states are considering early childhood programs for at-risk children, and to promote family self-sufficiency, many state welfare reform proposals address the child care needs of welfare recipients. The overlapping interests of children at risk and some welfare families present a unique opportunity for state legislators to integrate policies for both of these groups. It is important to remember, however, that for the children – whether they are in child care settings or early childhood education programs – their development will be affected significantly by the quality of those programs.

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II

Child Care and Economic Well-Being

The stability of a state's economy depends upon the availability of a productive work force. A state needs people who are able to work and who can be educated and trained or retrained for new jobs as the character of the job market changes. These workers must have the personal skills and attitudes necessary for success in the labor force, be motivated to work, and have the necessary family supports in place in order to be productive. Theoretically, such a work force would enable a state to maintain high employment levels, attract new business, and be competitive in national and international markets.

As more mothers start working, child care has become important to maintaining a productive labor force, with direct benefits to a state through increased tax revenue and consumer spending. In addition, with the increased emphasis on employment and training of welfare recipients, child care has become a crucial component of state and federal efforts to reduce welfare costs. Child care represents a necessary support that enables parents to work, and inadequate child care limits parents' productivity on the job.

Child Care and the Working Population

The availability of accessible and affordable child care is essential to many working parents. Unfortunately, child care is often difficult to find, and many parents report frequent breakdowns in their child care arrangements [Galinsky and Hughes, 1986; Trost, 1987]. The Census Bureau estimates that almost 19 million people had no paid employment in 1987 because they stayed home with children ["Money Income and Poverty Status in the United States: 1987," 1988]. Recent studies show that problems with either finding or keeping child care arrangements reduce labor force participation for many parents and increase parental stress. For example, a 1984 survey in Maine found that over 25 percent of nonworking parents with children under 13 might work if child care were available ["Child Care in Maine," 1984]. Similarly, a 1987 national survey found that 27 percent of families with a nonworking spouse indicated that those spouses would be working if better, more convenient child care were available ["America's Child Care Needs," 1987]. Results of a five-year survey of female employees in Virginia indicated that more than a quarter of all working mothers surveyed had considered quitting their jobs because of child care problems [Trost, 1987].

Inadequate child care not only interferes with entry into the labor force but also hinders parents' advancement and personal productivity on the job. A study conducted by the Pittsburgh Child Care Network found that the major factor affecting an employee's ability to balance family and work responsibilities and to function effectively on the job was securing quality child care [Fernandez, 1986]. The 1987 national survey mentioned earlier found that 28 percent of all working parents with children under age 12 had given up a job or a promotion due to the lack of child care ["America's Child Care Needs," 1987].

Results from a number of other studies associate child care problems with unproductive time at work. In 1982 Emlen and Koren surveyed over 8,000 employees in Portland, Oregon. Their study showed that employees lost an average of nine days per year as a result of family problems, including child care. It also demonstrated that problems with child care increased the likelihood that employees would be late for work, would leave early, and would deal with family matters during working hours [Emlen and Koren, 1984].

Similarly, a study of employed parents of children under age 12 in dual-earning families found that the most significant predictors of both absenteeism and unproductive time at work were problems with child care [Galinsky and Hughes, 1986]. In this

study, 41 percent of the parents reported having missed at least one day of work in the three months before the survey because of child care problems, and 10 percent reported missing three to five days. Another study of over 5,000 employees from five major corporations further showed that both male and female employees with children under age 12 were more likely to miss work than other employees and that nearly half of the women and one quarter of the men spent unproductive time at work because of child care issues [Fernandez, 1986].

Several conclusions can be drawn from this research. First, lack of available, affordable, and acceptable child care arrangements complicates parents' options to work and may significantly restrict their abilities to work to their full potential. Second, for all parents—but particularly unemployed parents who would prefer to be working and parents who are working part-time but who would rather be working full-time—child care problems may restrict or reduce their earnings and benefits. Third, and particularly for single parents, child care problems are likely to affect career advancement potential and the ability to establish tenure in jobs. Such parents have fewer job or career prospects, less opportunity to gain experience and seniority, and can expect to have less responsibility and fewer promotions during their working lives [Besharov and Dally, 1986].

State Strategies for Child Care Support for Working Parents

Increasingly, state child care policies are reflecting an interest in helping working parents reduce their problems with child care. The major emphasis of state programs continues to focus on low-income families. Many state policies, however, also demonstrate methods for reducing child care costs and increasing the availability, accessibility, and quality of care for families at various income levels. State child care policies generally have developed in a fragmented fashion and in response to changing federal child care policies.

State Policies That Reduce the Cost of Child Care for Parents

States use both direct and indirect methods of reducing child care costs. Building on federal programs, states target direct as-

sistance, primarily through subsidies to lower-income families. A majority of states use part of their federal Social Services Block Grant (SSBG) money to fund child care subsidies for low-income families, although changes in federal policy no longer require that a portion of SSBG funds be used for child care. In most cases, eligibility for SSBG subsidies is based on state standards for Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) or Supplemental Security Income (SSI).

State SSBG child care assistance generally is allocated in the form of vouchers to parents or reimbursements to providers and administered using a sliding fee scale based on family income and number of dependents. States such as Wisconsin and Iowa provide additional state dollars to supplement federal SSBG child care funds. In lieu of direct subsidy, states also may opt to take advantage of another federal child care provision for low-income families. Under the AFDC program, if recipients pay for their child care, they may disregard a portion of these expenses in calculating their monthly benefit. Under the Family Support Act of 1988, AFDC families may disregard $175 a month in child care expenses for children two and over and $200 for younger children [Family Support Act, 1988].

Several states, including Alaska, California, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New York, and Rhode Island, also provide money for state sliding fee scale programs. In most cases these funds are available to low-income families whose incomes exceed the SSBG limits. State and federal sliding fee scales are graduated so that families earning higher incomes receive lower subsidies [Blank et al., 1987].

Many states provide indirect child care assistance to other than the lowest-income families through the tax code. Twenty-five states and the District of Columbia provide financial support to families at middle- and upper-income levels through state income tax credits or deductions for child care expenses. In most instances, the state child care tax provisions are tied to the federal child care tax credit [Smith, 1988]. The federal program enables parents to claim income tax credits for child care expenses up to a maximum of $2,400 for one child or $4,800 for two or more children. The federal credit ranges from 20 to 30 percent of eligible expenses based on a family's income. State child care tax credits range from 10 percent of the federal credit in Arkansas to 50 percent in Hawaii [*Tax Administrators News*, 1988].

As an alternative to a credit, several states, including Montana and Virginia, permit parents to deduct child care expenses from their state income taxes. Although most states restrict deductions to a portion of the amount spent on child care, Idaho permits

families to deduct 100 percent of their child care expenses [*Child Care: A Work Force Issue Report*, 1988; Gnezda, 1987].

Generally, tax credits and tax deductions for child care, unless eligibility is limited by income, are of primary benefit to families with incomes above the median family income level. In Iowa, for instance, where the credit is a percentage of the federal credit, only 20 percent of the benefits go to families with incomes at or below the state median income level. Minnesota, New Mexico, and Oregon further provide refundable credits to parents who do not earn enough to be liable for taxes.

States also provide indirect assistance through the tax code by providing incentives to employers to assist their employees with child care. Connecticut enables companies to earn corporate investment or renovation credits for contributions to child care facilities used by their employees. The state also provides a tax credit for companies that subsidize their employees' child care expenses. Similarly, Oregon provides a 50 percent tax credit to corporations that provide or pay for child care services for their employees. In addition, Arizona and New Mexico allow deductions for employer costs of providing child care for their workers; California permits extended amortization and depreciation of expenses; Pennsylvania provides employment incentive payment credits; and Florida allows a 100 percent deduction of start-up costs for employee child care facilities [Gnezda, 1987].

Despite state legislative interest in employer incentives, companies assist workers with child care on a very limited basis. According to a survey of employers, resistance to assisting with child care is linked to several factors, including the added cost to the employer of child care assistance, a desire not to favor one group of employees, and a belief that the burden of child care rests with the parents, not the employer [Kahn and Kamerman, 1987].

In part to encourage greater private sector involvement in child care and to serve as a model for private sector employers, two-thirds of the states either provide or are planning to provide child care assistance for state employees. Fifteen states, including California, Florida, New York, Ohio, Utah, Washington, and Wisconsin, provide on or near-site care for children of their employees. Many other states, including Kentucky, Pennsylvania, and Vermont, support resource and referral efforts that assist state employees in locating child care services. Still other states directly defer child care costs for state employees. For example, Illinois offers child care reimbursements, and Oregon offers state employees the federal income reduction plan. Under that option, an employee may receive child care financial assistance from his or her employer as a pretax benefit [Flaim, 1988].

State Policies That Promote Expansion, Accessibility, and Quality of Services

Child care assistance goes beyond making child care more affordable for families. Parents also need to be able to find child care for their children that is safe, predictable, and stable. State policies that reduce the costs of providing care may encourage providers to expand services, defray actual costs for parents, lead to greater availability and stability of child care services, and promote higher quality.

A number of state policies are designed to reduce the costs of providing child care through loan or grant programs for start-up, construction, or renovation expenses. California provides interest-free loans, Connecticut provides low-interest loans, and Illinois and Maryland also fund loan programs for providers. Massachusetts provides low-interest loans for start-up costs for employer-sponsored child care facilities financed through the Massachusetts Industrial Finance Agency. Oregon offers grants rather than loans for physical improvements to child care facilities; and Rhode Island funds a grant program for private, nonprofit providers operating child care facilities in industrial parks [Gnezda, 1987; Sonnier, 1988].

Other state policies illustrate additional strategies to reduce the costs of providing child care and thus expand the availability of services. Arizona offers tax deductions for the purchase, construction, or renovation of child care facilities. These deductions are also applicable to child care equipment costs. Connecticut assists providers of school-age child care in state-funded programs with liability insurance costs, and Massachusetts funds a set-aside program to help child care providers with extraordinary rent and insurance expenses [Gnezda, 1987].

A few states, including New York, Pennsylvania, and Vermont, have funds for the recruitment of child care providers. California, under its Child Care Initiative, also recruits and trains family day care providers and offers technical assistance to enable providers to become licensed and to stay in business [Sonnier, 1988]. Participation in most of these state financial assistance programs is contingent upon the child care provider meeting applicable state licensing or registration standards. In this manner, states can use the power of the purse to encourage providers to improve the quality of care by meeting state standards.

States also have sought to improve child care availability and accessibility through means other than financial. The most common state strategy for increasing the accessibility of child care is the establishment or funding of resource and referral systems (R&Rs). R&Rs serve a variety of purposes and generally are operated by independent, private entities. Often, they provide a re-

source bank of child care services available in a particular locale. The existence of R&R services facilitates the process of matching a parent's child care needs with the available services. This reduces the difficulties parents face in locating appropriate care for their children. It also helps providers by supplying them with a source of potential consumers for their child care services. Thus, both parents and providers benefit.

R&Rs often offer additional services as well, including training and technical assistance for providers, information on options for employer-supported child care, access to resource lists for businesses, public information and advocacy, and periodic assessment of the changing characteristics of the child care market. At their best, R&Rs use a variety of methods to improve quality child care options in their communities.

Several states provide funding for R&Rs. California supports a statewide network of locally administered R&Rs under the California Child Care Resource and Referral Network, a nonprofit organization. New York recently passed legislation to encourage public and private support and development of R&R services throughout the state. Arkansas, Iowa, Massachusetts, New Mexico, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Rhode Island, and Washington are among other states that provide state money for R&R services [Sonnier, 1988; *1987 State Legislative Summary, 1987; 1988 State Legislative Summary*, 1988].

State policies can promote quality child care in several ways. As described in chapter 1, minimum standards are established and enforced in most states through licensing and registration. Increasing staff salaries may reduce turnover and aid in the recruitment of trained personnel. Connecticut, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania recently provided state funds to raise staff salaries in qualifying child care facilities. A related strategy for promoting quality is to help finance training for child care providers. Connecticut funds a cable television training series, and Rhode Island pays for training and resource development for non-English speaking family day care providers. Other states financing training initiatives include Massachusetts and Minnesota [*1988 State Legislative Summary*, 1988; Gnezda, 1987].

Child Care and Welfare Reform

The training and education of parents can be a critical element leading to a more productive work force. Child care support to parents in training and education programs is essential to ensure their participation. This is particularly true for parents who lack basic skills necessary for finding and keeping a job and for single parents with no spouse to care for the children during the training or education period. It is also true for parents who must develop new skills and areas of expertise as the nature of the job market changes.

State experiences from across the nation demonstrate that, for parents on public assistance, child care is an essential factor in the success of job training programs. In a report on state welfare-to-work training programs published by the Government Accounting Office in 1987, 60 percent of the respondents from 61 programs in 38 states reported that the need for child care prevented AFDC recipients from registering or participating in work training programs [*Work and Welfare*, 1987].

Lack of satisfactory child care arrangements also influences the ability of welfare recipients to find and keep a job. Wicks and Caro recently studied the barriers to employment for 159 single mothers receiving AFDC in Washington state. They found that child care problems prevented three-quarters of the mothers from finding a job. The researchers also noted that next to inadequate job skills, problems with child care were the most important barrier to employment for AFDC mothers [Wicks and Caro, 1986].

For participants in state welfare-to-work training programs, the extension of child care assistance beyond the training period is a key element in ensuring successful job placement for public assistance recipients [Glynn, 1987; Sanders, 1987; Strassburger, 1987]. Results of a 1986 survey of welfare recipients in Massachusetts who became employed after completing the Employment and Training (E.T.) Choices program demonstrate the importance of transitional child care assistance. In this survey, with transitional child care, 86 percent of the ET participants still were working 12 months after completing the program. Of those who no longer were working, 36 percent reported that problems with child care were the single largest reason for leaving their jobs [Glynn, 1987].

In addition to public assistance recipients, other groups of parents in training and education programs also need child care support. Such groups include teenage parents who have not yet completed high school; parents who are working toward finishing their General Education Degree (GED); and others who are pursuing technical training, college, or advanced degrees. Parents with limited English-language proficiency or parents in literacy

programs also need child care support during their training. Furthermore, displaced homemakers and parents whose jobs have become obsolete and who must be retrained also may need such support as they prepare for work outside the home.

Since many adult education classes and training and retraining programs are offered at night, child care must be available at those times. This also applies to those whose employment includes evening shifts. Most child care is available only during regular working hours, and this presents problems that state policy should address. The lack of availability of care for sick children in most places also poses problems for parents in training and employment programs.

State Policies to Support Child Care for Parents in Training and Education Programs

Child Care in Welfare-to-Work Programs

Forty-one states report giving child care assistance to parents who receive public assistance [Romig, 1989]. State provisions for child care assistance associated with training and employment of welfare recipients have become key elements of state welfare reform programs. Most states have provided child care for parents during the training period, with many also providing transitional child care during the early months of employment. Under the federal Family Support Act enacted in 1988, one year of transitional child care assistance must be made available to AFDC families in need of child care for employment purposes [Family Support Act, 1988].

As of mid-1988, 18 states already had statutes giving child care support for welfare recipients in work training programs. These states are California, Connecticut, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, Tennessee, Washington, and Wisconsin. Many of these states, including California, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Iowa, Massachusetts, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, and New York, also provide transitional child care ranging from three to 18 months after completion of the training program and the beginning of employment [Romig, 1989]. Currently, 10 states fund child care allowances as a special need for AFDC parents in training or school under Title IV-A of the Social Security Act [Blank et al., 1987].

Participation requirements for parents in state programs generally are tied to federal ones, but several states have obtained waivers that allow variations. In New Jersey, parents with children over age two must participate. Washington exempts parents with children under age three [*Child Care: A Work Force Issue Report*, 1988]. The Michigan Opportunity and Skills Training (MOST) program is compulsory for parents with children six months and older when adequate child care is available.

Under the welfare reform provisions of the federal Family Support Act of 1988, states must require welfare recipients with children three and older to participate in education and training programs and may require those with children between one and three to participate. Child care must be provided for those required to participate. For work program participants, states must offer child care if necessary for successful employment. States are reimbursed for child care costs at the Medicaid matching rate, which currently ranges from 50 percent to approximately 79 percent.

In all cases, the cost to the state of providing child care, as part of work and training programs for welfare recipients, is great. In Georgia slightly over half of the Positive Employment and Community Help (PEACH) fiscal 1988 program budget was earmarked for child care. Massachusetts spends nearly half of its E.T. Choices budget on child care. New Jersey's child care provisions in the Realizing Economic Achievement (REACH) program consume nearly one-third of its budget [*Child Care: A Work Force Issue Report*, 1988]. The length of time that transitional child care is available to participants, as well as the numbers and ages of children served under mandatory participation requirements, greatly affects program costs.

Of all the work and training programs for welfare recipients with young children, California's Greater Avenues for Independence (GAIN) and Massachusetts' E.T. Choices programs have received the most attention.

California's GAIN program requires AFDC recipients with children at least six years old to participate in training, employment, and workfare. GAIN provides parents without informal child care arrangements with vouchers that can be used in licensed centers or in family day care homes that meet Department of Social Services guidelines. From GAIN's inception, child care, focused largely on before- and after-school care, was seen as an essential component of the program. Full implementation of the GAIN program by 1990 is expected to include child care for 50,000 to 90,000 school-aged children.

Massachusetts' E.T. Choices program also requires AFDC parents with children six years old and over to participate. Begun in 1983, the program provides education, skills training, job place-

ment, or work experiences to participants. Child care costs are covered during the period of direct participation in the program and up to 12 months after employment begins. The importance of child care to the success of the E.T. Choices program is evident in the high proportion of its budget allocated to child care. As mentioned earlier, nearly half of the E.T. Choices budget goes for child care. In 1987 $27 million was spent on child care vouchers for approximately 8,000 children whose parents were either program participants or employed program graduates [Sanders, 1987]. As in California, child care under E.T. Choices is paid for by vouchers issued to parents.

Partially due to the availability of child care support, voluntary participation in the E.T. Choices program by parents with children under the age limit for mandatory participation is common. In 1987 Thomas P. Glynn, III, deputy commissioner of the Massachusetts Department of Public Welfare, reported that 41 percent of the children served by the E.T. Choices child care voucher system were under age six [Glynn, 1987]. (See chapter 4 for more information on the Massachusetts program.)

Child Care for Teenage Parents

Several states provide funding or other support for child care for children of teen parents to encourage them to complete high school. California pays for child care based at or near junior high or high school buildings, and Florida provides funds to expand existing child care programs and start up new ones in high school buildings. In Wisconsin state money is available with a county match to pay for child care in schools. Pennsylvania and Texas encourage school districts to offer child care for teenage parents. Connecticut provides money for school-based child care to keep teen parents in school, and New York offers child care assistance to teenage parents who are in high school, who are working toward a GED, and who earn less than 115 percent of the state median income [Blank and Wilkins, 1986]. Michigan, through its Young Parent Program, guarantees child care assistance to any parents under 21 years of age to complete high school, adult basic education, or a GED. Rhode Island makes information on child care available to teenage parents who are interested in continuing their high school education through the departments of Human Services and Elementary and Secondary Education and the Health Center Association [*Child Care: A Work Force Issue Report*, 1988].

Child Care for Parents in Postsecondary Training and Education Programs

Less common than giving child care support for parents completing high school or high school equivalency programs is offering it to low-income parents in postsecondary training and education programs. California and New York have separate sources of state money that fund child care assistance to parents enrolled in two- and four-year colleges [Blank and Wilkins, 1986]. North Carolina provides child care assistance to single parents enrolled in community colleges, and Wisconsin permits the use of its SSBG funds for parents enrolled in undergraduate and, in some cases, graduate programs [Gnezda, 1987]. As part of its welfare reform initiative, Minnesota targeted part of its state sliding fee scale child care subsidies to both AFDC recipients and non-AFDC parents enrolled in public and private colleges or universities. In 1987 Minnesota also authorized a state bond issue to build 16 day care centers at technical schools and community colleges [*Child Care: A Work Force Issue Report,* 1988].

Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Michigan, Montana, New York, North Dakota, Pennsylvania, and Vermont exercise a state option under the federal AFDC program to include child care expenses as a "special need" for parents pursuing educational or training programs [Blank et al., 1987]. In Iowa this support includes child care, tuition, and transportation expenses for AFDC clients pursuing completion of high school, a GED, a community college training program, or even a baccalaureate degree. As a special need, the federal government provides unlimited program matching support for state expenditures at the matching rate for AFDC grants.

Child Care for Parents in Literacy Programs

Kentucky and Washington provide examples of education programs designed to increase the educational level of parents and provide child care services to their young children. Both state programs focus on curbing the rates of illiteracy for parents and their children.

In 1987 Washington passed legislation establishing Project Even Start. This program provides adult literacy programs for eligible parents with children below the third grade level who are considered at risk because of economic disadvantage, English-language deficiencies, or other special needs. The program provides basic skills or literacy training and parent education. Parent education provides guidance for parent-child interactions and stresses the use of language and reading in common everyday

experiences. Child care assistance is available to parents who participate in the Even Start program through on-site programs or reimbursements to parents for other child care services. The Even Start program also funds transportation to child care for participants. Washington expects to serve 1,200 parents in 25 sites by the end of June 1989 [Washington State Office of Early Childhood Education Programs, 1988].

Kentucky's Parent and Child Education (PACE) program, established through legislation in 1986, is targeted to parents over 25 years of age who have three- or four-year-old children and who do not have a high school diploma. Parents receive basic skills training through adult education classes, as well as child development education that includes direct experience in early childhood education programs with their children. All school districts, in which at least 60 percent of the adults did not have high school diplomas, were eligible to apply for PACE pilot grants. Six programs received funding in Fiscal Year 1987 and 12 received funding for Fiscal Year 1988. PACE is designed to "break the intergenerational cycle of undereducation" by working with both the parents' and the children's educational needs [Kentucky Department of Education, 1988].

Economic Benefits of Supporting Child Care

Experiences in both the public and private sectors demonstrate that spending on child care and early childhood education provides significant economic benefits.

Economic Benefits to Private and Public Sector Employers

Many private sector employers are beginning to recognize the benefits of providing child care assistance for their employees. Some of these employers report that child care enhances a company's earnings through lower absenteeism and lower turnover rates, less worker stress, and a decline in worker errors. Providing child care assistance also may improve recruitment by attracting more and better employees [Emlen and Koren, 1984]. In fact, 10 companies that participated in the National Employer Supported Child Care Project estimated significant savings on recruitment, and one company reported that 95 percent of its job applicants had applied because of the availability of child care assistance [Emlen and Koren, 1984].

The benefits private sector employers receive through their support of child care have several implications for state policy. First, a state, as an employer, can reap similar benefits as private employers through providing child care assistance. In Wisconsin, the existence of on-site child care for state employees was credited with reductions in absenteeism, tardiness, and incidents of parents leaving work early [Saterfield, 1987].

Second, a state can encourage the private sector to assist employees with child care through economic incentives and through technical assistance. Finally, by providing child care assistance through subsidies to low-income workers who are not eligible for other state and federal child care assistance, resource and referral systems for all employees, and child care support for adults in training or education programs, a state may expand its pool of workers and contribute to increased productivity.

Economic Benefits of Child Care Support for the Working Poor

Increasing evidence suggests that state spending on child care for the working poor can reduce welfare dependency and increase employment. In 1983 the Colorado Commission on Children and Their Families conducted a cost-benefit analysis with a sample of low-income single parents who had difficulty remaining in the work force because of child care problems. The parents in the study received state subsidies for child care. This study suggested that the cost to the state of supporting a family on welfare (AFDC and Medicaid) was nearly three times greater than that of supporting a family through child care subsidies ["Benefit/Cost Analysis of Colorado," 1984]. Other research in Colorado showed that 46 percent of the working poor receiving child care subsidies in 1979-1980 had been on welfare previously and would likely return to the welfare rolls if child care subsidies were unavailable. In addition, low-income parents receiving child care subsidies had been on welfare an average of 14.8 months, while those not receiving them were on welfare an average of 38 months [Eichengreen, 1980].

An Ohio study comparing child care and welfare costs found that the state saves two dollars for every one dollar it spends on child care [Rhodes and Real, 1985]. In addition, Massachusetts, with child care provided under the E.T. Choices program, reportedly reduced welfare expenditures by 25 percent in 1986 [Glynn, 1987].

None of these studies is without methodological flaws, and the exact relationship between providing child care and reducing welfare costs has yet to be determined. A hallmark of the Family Support Act of 1988 is to provide support services—particularly child care—required for AFDC recipients to achieve independence from welfare.

Since the federal legislation requires the provision of transitional child care assistance for a full year, more will be learned about the feasibility of significant reductions in state welfare expenditures through child care subsidies. Current research suggests that supporting low-income families through child care subsidies can result in some savings of state and federal welfare dollars in the short term and may produce an even greater long-term benefit through increased self-sufficiency and economic productivity.

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III

Early Childhood Education: Foundation for Later Productivity

Both child care and early childhood education services are important family support mechanisms enabling parents to work and children to develop productivity. Research shows that quality early childhood programs for economically disadvantaged children contribute to higher levels of success in school, greater achievement motivation, and higher vocational aspirations, and the development of values, attitudes, and goals that relate to future success in the labor force.

Much of the research on early childhood education has been conducted on half-day early childhood education programs (primarily through Head Start). While the majority of these studies concentrate on the short-term effects of early childhood education on the child's academic progress in elementary school, some also explore long-term effects that are evident during and beyond secondary school.

In general, research shows that low-income children who participate in quality early childhood education programs are more

likely than other low-income children to perform better in school and to demonstrate socially acceptable attitudes and behaviors as young adults.

The bulk of the research shows that children who participate in early childhood education programs exhibit greater motivation toward learning and achievement and higher regard for themselves than similar children who do not [McKey et al., 1985]. Some studies show that children who participate in quality early childhood education programs score higher on both intelligence and achievement tests through the third or fourth grades [Lazar and Darlington, 1982]. Others indicate that economically disadvantaged children with early childhood education experience are less likely to be placed in special education classes, classified as mentally retarded, and held back during elementary school [Berrueta-Clement et al., 1984; Lazar and Darlington, 1982].

Over the longer term, a few studies indicate that low-income children who attended early childhood education programs scored higher on achievement tests, earned higher grade-point averages, and were more likely to complete high school [Berrueta-Clement et al., 1984; "Investing in Our Children," 1985]. Children with early childhood experience also held higher vocational aspirations and demonstrated greater achievement motivation [Berrueta-Clement et al., 1984; Lazar and Darlington, 1982]. These children also showed greater initiative and assertiveness and felt better about themselves than those who had not attended early childhood education programs ["Investing in Our Children," 1985].

Some research demonstrates that the benefits of early childhood education extend through late adolescence and young adulthood. Again, based on comparisons of low-income children with and without early childhood education experience, those who had attended such programs were less likely to receive public assistance and were more likely to be employed or in postsecondary education programs at age 19 [Berrueta-Clement et al., 1984; "Investing in Our Children," 1985]. These young adults were also less likely to become pregnant as teenagers and showed lower detention and arrest rates [Berrueta-Clement et al., 1984]. A longitudinal study of the Family Development Research Program in Syracuse, New York, also demonstrated significant reductions in juvenile delinquency for children who had participated in the intensive program compared with those in a control group. Data on school functioning, however, were mixed. The girls in the program, but not the boys, benefited significantly from it [Lally et al., 1988].

The most frequently cited study of both short- and long-term benefits of early childhood education is the Perry Preschool Study of three- and four-year-old children from low-income families in Ypsilanti, Michigan. Approximately half the children in the study

attended a well-designed, quality early childhood education program and half did not. The Perry Preschool program services were provided in a center, and the curriculum stressed intellectual and social development. The preschool program operated two and one-half hours per day, five days a week, for seven months a year. Most of the children in the study had attended the Perry Preschool for two years, although some had attended for only one year. Teachers conducted home-visits with the mothers for one-and-one-half hours per week. Program staff received both in-service training and extensive supervision. The program took place between 1962 and 1965. Costs, in 1981 dollars, were estimated at $4,818 per child for one year, and $9,708 per child for two years [Berrueta-Clement et al., 1984].

Even with this level of expenditure, however, as a long-term investment the program returned six dollars for every dollar invested in the one-year program and three dollars for every dollar invested in the two-year program. These savings came from reduced use by Perry Preschool children of special education services, reduced involvement with the juvenile court system, reduced reliance upon welfare, and increased employment and earnings. At age 19, half the former Perry Preschool children were employed, versus 32 percent of the comparison group children. Only 18 percent were on welfare, compared with 32 percent of the other group. School dropout rates (33 percent versus 51 percent), special education use (15 percent versus 35 percent), juvenile arrest records (31 percent versus 51 percent), and college or vocational school participation (38 percent versus 21 percent) all favored the Perry Preschool children [Berrueta-Clement et al., 1984].

It is important to recognize that most of the research on the affects of early childhood education has involved low-income black children who attended quality half-day programs. It is likely that the benefits of early childhood education programs will occur for other groups of economically or socially disadvantaged children who attend such programs. Early childhood experiences that occur in full-day child care settings also may produce benefits, if careful attention is paid to the quality of program design and curriculum, level of expertise of the teachers, and parental involvement.

State Early Childhood Education Policies

State Funding for Preschool Programs

At least 28 states currently provide money to preschool programs, primarily for half-day programs for three- and four-year-

olds. (See Table 3.) States spent almost $225.6 million for preschool programs in 1988, up 27 percent from the previous year. The funds were used to serve 319,951 children and included $16.8 million in state Head Start supplements. In all states, except Iowa and Washington, these programs are administered by the state department of education. Most state programs target children likely to have difficulties in school. These children include the low-income and economically disadvantaged, as well as those with limited English-language skills. States directing their preschool dollars to at-risk children include Alaska, California, Colorado, Florida, Illinois, Iowa, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Jersey, New York, Oregon, South Carolina, Texas, Vermont, West Virginia, and Washington [Goodman and Brady, 1988; *1988 State Legislative Summary*, 1988].

In some cases (Delaware, Louisiana, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania), preschool programs receive state money as part of a state school finance formula and operate in the public schools. In Florida, Iowa, Oregon, Vermont, and Washington, however, preschool programs are funded through grants. In these states, the public schools, child care centers, Head Start programs, or other agencies are eligible as recipients [Gnezda and Robison, 1986; Gnezda and Sonnier, 1988].

At least eight states supplement federal Head Start programs. As mentioned earlier, Head Start is funded by 80 percent federal and 20 percent nonfederal match. Hawaii and Washington contribute state money for the required match. Other states' (Alaska, Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, Minnesota, and Rhode Island) contributions are designed to expand or improve services. Maine's contribution to Head Start is targeted to expand services to 25 percent of eligible children. Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island make state money available to increase the salaries of Head Start teachers [Goodman and Brady, 1988].

State Preschool Program Features

A majority of state preschool programs operate independently of the child care and Head Start systems and do not provide assistance to parents in meeting child care or other supportive service needs. Massachusetts and Vermont, however, stress coordination of early childhood education services with child care. A few programs such as those in Alaska, New Jersey, New York, Oregon, and Washington provide a range of services beyond educational enrichment similar to those included in Head Start [Gnezda and Sonnier, 1988]. (See Table 4.)

Table 3.

Status of State-Funded Preschool Initiatives

State	Existing	Proposed or in the Planning Stage	No Funding
General Enactments	**Head Start-Only Enactments**		
Alaska	Alaska*	Indiana	Alabama
California	Connecticut	Kentucky	Arizona
Colorado	Hawaii	New Hampshire	Arkansas
Delaware	Maine*	North Carolina	Georgia
Florida	Massachusetts*	Rhode Island	Idaho
Illinois	Minnesota*	Virginia	Kansas
Iowa	Rhode Island		Mississippi
Kentucky	Washington*		Montana
Louisiana			Nevada
Maine			Nebraska
Maryland			New Mexico
Massachusetts			North Dakota
Michigan			South Dakota
New Jersey			Tennessee
New York			Utah
Ohio			Wyoming
Oklahoma			
Oregon			
Pennsylvania			
South Carolina			
Texas			
Vermont			
Washington			
West Virginia			
Wisconsin			
25 states	8 states *states that have other state-funded preschool programs	6 states	16 states

Source: Adapted from F. Goodman and J. Brady, *Challenge of Coordination* (Newton, Mass.: Education Development Center, Inc., May 1988).

Parental Education Programs

Few states provide money specifically for parental education programs. As mentioned earlier, Kentucky and Washington include parental education in their literacy programs for parents of young children. Minnesota, Missouri, and Oregon, however, fund

Table 4.

General Preschool Program Features

State	ECE	Parent Involv.	Parent Decis.	Med./ Dental Scrn.	Med./ Dental Serv.	Nutrition	Mental Health Serv.	Social Serv.	Mainstream	Prog. Eval.	Staff Train.
Alaska	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
California*	x	x	x			x					x
Colorado*	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Delaware	x	x									
Florida*	x	x				x		x		x	x
Illinois*	x	x	x			x			x	x	x
Iowa*	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x
Kentucky	x	x	x			x				x	x
Louisiana	x										
Maine	x										
Massachusetts*	x	x	x	x		x		x	x	x	x
Maryland	x	x				x			x	x	x
Michigan	x	x	x								
New Jersey	x	x				x	x		x	x	
New York	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Ohio	x										
Oklahoma	x										
Oregon*	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

Pennsylvania	x	x	x	x		x			x	x	x
South Carolina	x	x				x		x		x	x
Texas	x										
Vermont*	x	x	x						x	x	x
Washington*	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
West Virginia	x	x	x	x	x				x		x
Wisconsin	x										

*Head Start receives funds.
ECE = Early Childhood Education.

Source: Adapted from F. Goodman and J. Brady, *Challenge of Coordination* (Newton, Mass.: Education Development Center, Inc., May 1988).

extensive parental education programs to enhance parental skills and promote healthy child development.

In 1974 Minnesota enacted legislation establishing the Early Childhood Family Education (ECFE) Program. Originally, the state funded pilots in six school districts, but by 1988, 300 of Minnesota's 435 districts offered ECFE. ECFE provides parents of infants and children up to age five with information on basic child development, parenting skills, health and developmental screening, community resources, and educational materials for use at home. The programs usually consist of a one-and-one-half to two-hour session per week, during which time children attend preschool classes and parents attend their own sessions. In some cases, parents and children interact in an early childhood setting [Marx and Seligson, 1988].

Missouri operates a statewide parental education program, New Parents as Teachers (PAT). All school districts are required to offer PAT for families with children under age five. PAT was designed to accomplish several goals: to provide information and guidance to parents during their child's early years, to reinforce the notion that parents are the first and most important teachers for their children, to alert parents to developmental difficulties or delays, and to provide educational assistance through coordination of community services. PAT also strives to increase confidence in parenting and to establish positive relationships and partnerships between home and school. As a result of PAT, Missouri state officials hope to reduce remedial education and grade retention [Marx and Seligson, 1988].

Missouri also provides developmental screening for children aged one through four and provides expanded services to developmentally delayed three- and four-year-olds not receiving services under special education.

Oregon's parental education program, scheduled for implementation in 1989, was established by the legislature in 1987. The program, Parents as Teachers, will serve families with children from birth through age eight who are expected to have difficulties in school. Schools will administer the program, although the legislation permits districts to contract for the services.

Maryland has provided grants to Family Support Centers, which work with teenage parents. These drop-in centers provide respite child care while involving parents in a variety of programs that assist them in continuing their education and providing stimulating home environments for their children. Taking a family support program approach, the centers seek to involve the entire family and to build upon the family members' strengths both in raising young children successfully and in developing adult life skills [*The First Sixty Months*, 1987].

Benefits of State Programs

Many states have developed or expanded early childhood education programs on the basis of the impressive cost-benefit studies conducted on programs such as that of the Perry Preschool. Not all states, however (see chapter four for a discussion of Washington's exemplary program), have followed with the intensity of the Perry program or the Head Start model in implementation. To expect results such as those cited in the studies, many researchers emphasize that implemented programs must be of similar quality and intensity—with low caregiver-child ratios, professional child development staff, and strong parental involvement. Where caregiver-child ratios exceed one to eight and where parents are not involved significantly in the educational process, no evidence exists that programs for low-income children achieve long-term results. Similarly, no evidence exists that programs for middle- or upper-income children can justify themselves on the basis of cost-savings for the state, although they may have substantial benefits to children and their families [Zigler, 1987].

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IV

Case Studies: Massachusetts and Washington

Overview

This chapter describes Massachusetts' child care and Washington's early childhood education policies. Recent initiatives in these states provide examples of major efforts to expand program options, assure quality, support self-sufficiency, and encourage coordination between the child care and early childhood education service delivery systems. This chapter focuses on the programs, the economic environments that helped create a climate for change, and similarities in the policy development process as it occurred in each state. The information for the case studies was compiled from legislation, state agency reports, and interviews with key policymakers, including state legislators, state agency officials, children's advocates, business community members, and service providers.

These case studies provide examples of initiatives that generated private sector support, in part due to the economic implications of child care and early childhood education policies. An expanding economy in Massachusetts contributed to a focus on increasing child care options to attract workers, and a sluggish economy in

Washington prompted the state to pursue early childhood education programs as part of an effort to upgrade the future work force. The establishment of broad-based coalitions in Massachusetts and Washington, which included the private sector, was critical to successful policy development. These coalitions provided a mechanism for coordinated action and facilitated the resolution of differences even before bills were presented to the legislature.

Other factors—including executive branch support, the political sophistication and cohesion of business interests, providers, and advocates, and the nature of the state-level political system—also were important to the success of these child care and early childhood education initiatives.

Child Care Initiatives in Massachusetts

Massachusetts initiated a broad range of child care policies in the early 1980s to support working parents at different economic levels. The state's expanding labor market magnified the need for child care and related child care availability to the supply of workers, especially women.

In the early 1980s, the state's economy entered a period of strong growth. The unemployment rate fell from 6.9 to 3.2 percent between 1983 and 1987 [*Statistical Abstract of the United States 1988*, 1987], and the demand for child care increased substantially as the participation rate of women in the work force grew. Only 12 percent of women with children under six were participating in the work force in 1970; but, by 1980, that figure grew to 42 percent [*Governor's Partnership for Day Care Initiative*, 1987]. The percentage of working mothers with young children is expected to reach 65 percent by 1995 [*Caring for Our Common Wealth*, 1988].

The influx of mothers into the labor force created an increased demand for and interest in child care. In fact, child care was among the major issues in the 1982 gubernatorial race with private providers and child care advocates heavily involved in the campaign. Together, these economic and political developments contributed to the creation of a broad range of child care programs between 1983 and 1987. In part, the economic conditions that fueled the demand for the programs also helped finance expanded programs.

Many of the new policies and programs of the 1980s were initiated during Governor Michael Dukakis' administration, while other child care initiatives developed concurrently but independently of executive-level efforts. All these initiatives advanced the state's strong tradition of support for child care and resulted in

a broad array of child care services and programs. These policies focus on two primary goals: (1) expansion of quality child care and (2) reduction of child care costs for the family. Specific vehicles for implementing these goals include:

- Wage increases for providers;
- Training programs for providers;
- A statewide resource and referral network;
- Child care centers for state employees;
- Technical assistance for employers;
- Increased state licensing staff;
- Child care for AFDC families in training and employment programs;
- Subsidized child care for low-income families;
- Low-interest loans for corporate child care facilities; and,
- Grants for improvements to nonprofit child care facilities.

Public/Private Initiatives

Since child care was an important issue in the 1982 Massachusetts gubernatorial race, Governor Dukakis included child care advocates prominently on his transition team. The Governor's Day Care Partnership Project produced a plan for state action on child care resource development, quality assurance, affordability, and coordination.

The partnership project emphasized the link between quality child care options and continued state economic growth. To implement project goals, the governor's office formed a broad-based coalition including state legislators; child care representatives and advocates; and members of business organizations, insurance companies, labor unions, philanthropic organizations, and state agencies. The coalition structure precluded groups from pursuing separate, divergent goals; created a mechanism for reaching consensus on controversial issues; and directed advocacy efforts. In addition, child care advocates mobilized a strong lobbying effort.

These strategies were effective in developing a unified agenda for legislative consideration. Beginning in 1985, lawmakers approved annual program and funding requests totaling $67.1 million for a variety of child care initiatives. By 1989, annual state funding for child care had more than doubled to approximately $160 million [Massachusetts Day Care Policy Unit, 1989].

A fundamental goal of the partnership initiative was to encourage the development of child care assistance in the private sector. With the establishment of the Office of Child Day Care within the Execu-

tive Office of Economic Affairs, Massachusetts became the first state to include such a unit in an agency devoted to economic development. The office focuses on corporate child care initiatives providing information, speakers, and consultants to assist employers in designing programs suited to their needs. Currently, 184 employers in Massachusetts offer some form of employee child care assistance compared with fewer than 30 prior to 1985 [Massachusetts Executive Office of Economic Affairs, 1988].

The Massachusetts Industrial Finance Agency (MIFA) also supports businesses establishing child care centers through its $750,000 loan fund. The fund is available to finance construction or renovation of child care facilities at below market rates. The loan fund was established in 1986 to assist small companies, a consortium of businesses, or nonprofit organizations. The maximum loan amount is $250,000. Since 1986, five loans have been arranged and three centers completed.

The partnership coalition also provided a vehicle for encouraging other private sector initiatives. New England Telephone responded with a $750,000 grant program for nonprofit child care centers. The grants are awarded to licensed centers for capital improvements and equipment [Massachusetts Industrial Finance Agency, 1988].

Raising Provider Salaries

Perhaps the most significant issue the partnership project coalition addressed was that of provider compensation. In its recommendations to the governor, the coalition emphasized the importance of upgrading child care workers' salaries. Chronic problems of high turnover and unqualified workers among the state's child care providers were attributed to low wage scales [Adlin, 1985]. Subsequently, the governor's budget included funds to increase workers' salaries. With support from organized labor, the legislature then approved a $16 million increase in providers' salaries for 1985 and 1986. The initiative raised wages for providers participating in state-supported child care programs by 32 percent. Subsequent funding has boosted the increase to 40 percent [*Caring for Our Common Wealth*, 1988]. Currently, the salaries of Massachusetts' providers average $18,000 annually [Massachusetts Day Care Policy Unit, 1988].

Child Care for State Employees

Child care for state employees also became an issue at the collective bargaining tables. Union representatives negotiated an agreement with the state Office of Employee Relations to create

labor-management committees to establish child care facilities for state employees. By 1987 the state had 33 child care centers operating in state-owned buildings, an increase of seven centers in two years. These facilities are divided almost equally between the state's college campuses and state office buildings. The centers serve approximately 1,800 children and the state expects to continue expanding the number of child care openings for its employees [Massachusetts Governor's Office for Children, 1989].

Increasing Accessibility, Quality, and Availability

A statewide resource and referral service network was established as a direct result of the partnership project. Prior to 1985, Massachusetts had only one such publicly funded agency. Currently, 12 agencies operate at 20 sites across the state [*Governor's Partnership for Day Care Initiative*, 1987]. Between July 1985 and December 1987, more than 41,000 parents in Massachusetts were assisted through the statewide network. The agencies also recruit and provide technical assistance to providers.

Quality and safety issues also were raised as a result of the partnership initiative. To upgrade the quality of care, training opportunities for providers were expanded. Over 9,000 providers participated in free, state-sponsored educational courses and workshops in Fiscal Year 1988. Oversight practices, such as on-site inspection visits, were extended to family day care providers. The Office for Children, which licenses and monitors providers, also actively recruits family day care homes and has added 21 licensors to process an overflow of applications. The capacity of licensed child care centers and family day care homes rose by 20 percent in Massachusetts between January 1985 and January 1988 [*Caring for Our Common Wealth*, 1988].

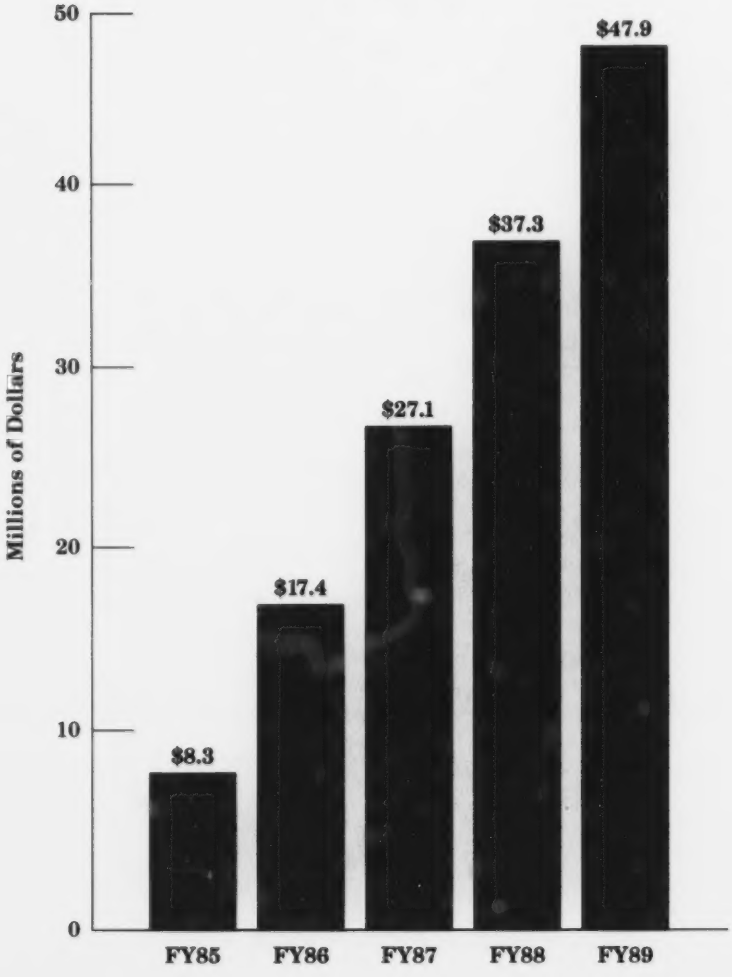
Child Care for Low-Income Families

Massachusetts' widely recognized Employment and Training Choices program includes a major child care component considered essential to its success. AFDC recipients participating in job training or education receive child care vouchers. (See Figure 2 for the state's expenditures on vouchers from Fiscal Years 1985-89.) In addition, during the first 12 months of employment, parents are eligible for the state's contracted child care program if they meet income guidelines.

Begun in 1983, E.T. Choices attempts to develop economic self-sufficiency among welfare recipients. According to recent state agency testimony to the congressional Select Committee on Children, Youth and Families, the program has placed over 30,000

Figure 2.

Massachusetts Department of Public Welfare
Voucher Day Care Expenditures
FY85-FY89



Source: Massachusetts Department of Public Welfare Budget Office, December 1988.

recipients in full- or part-time jobs [*Child Care: Key to Employment in a Changing Economy*, 1987]. Although Massachusetts utilizes several federal sources (e.g., Title IV-A, Work Incentive Demonstration Funds) to finance the voucher program, state appropriations have covered the bulk of the costs. (Chapter two gives more detail about the child care components of the program.)

In addition to the voucher program, the state purchases 18,000 child care openings through contracts with licensed providers, with contracted care being the largest child care program in the state. In Fiscal Year 1987, Massachusetts spent $75.1 million in state funds for contracted care.

To be eligible for regular contract openings, family income must be below 70 percent of the state median income (SMI). Recipients contribute to the cost of care on a sliding fee scale and may continue to receive assistance until their income reaches 115 percent of SMI [Marx and Seligson, 1988]. A portion of available openings are saved for E.T. Choices graduates, and 4,000 are filled by children who require protective or preventive care or who have other special needs [*Governor's Partnership for Day Care Initiative*, 1987].

To help meet the needs of families who don't qualify for these low-income state subsidies, Massachusetts initiated a pilot project in 1987. The Affordability Scholarship Assistance Program (ASAP) awards child care scholarships to families whose incomes fall between 70 and 100 percent of the state median income and who either are in job training or are working. Recipients were selected through a lottery system conducted by six of the state's resource and referral agencies. The legislature appropriated $440,000 for this program, and during Fiscal Year 1988, 310 children benefited from the scholarships [*Governor's Partnership for Day Care Initiative*, 1987].

Coordination

Massachusetts has moved toward coordinating child care with early childhood education programs in a number of ways. First, the Legislative Commission on Early Childhood Programs was created to examine ways to provide universal, affordable, full-day early childhood programs. Membership on the commission includes five legislators, the secretaries of Human Services and Economic Affairs, the commissioner of Education, chairpersons of the Governor's Early Childhood Advisory Council and the Governor's Child Care Initiative, and five gubernatorial appointees [Marx and Seligson, 1988].

Second, through its 1985 legislation, the state has linked early childhood education with child care. Earmarked for funding are programs for three- and four-year-olds, enhanced kindergarten and transitional first grade classes, and programs that creatively

combine early childhood education and day care. The legislation also specifically mentions extended-day programs and child care programs in schools.

Third, a state advisory board, created by the 1985 legislation, reports on future trends in early childhood education and child care. In addition, local advisory councils that include representatives from the child care community are required [Massachusetts Acts, Chapter 188, 1985].

Summary

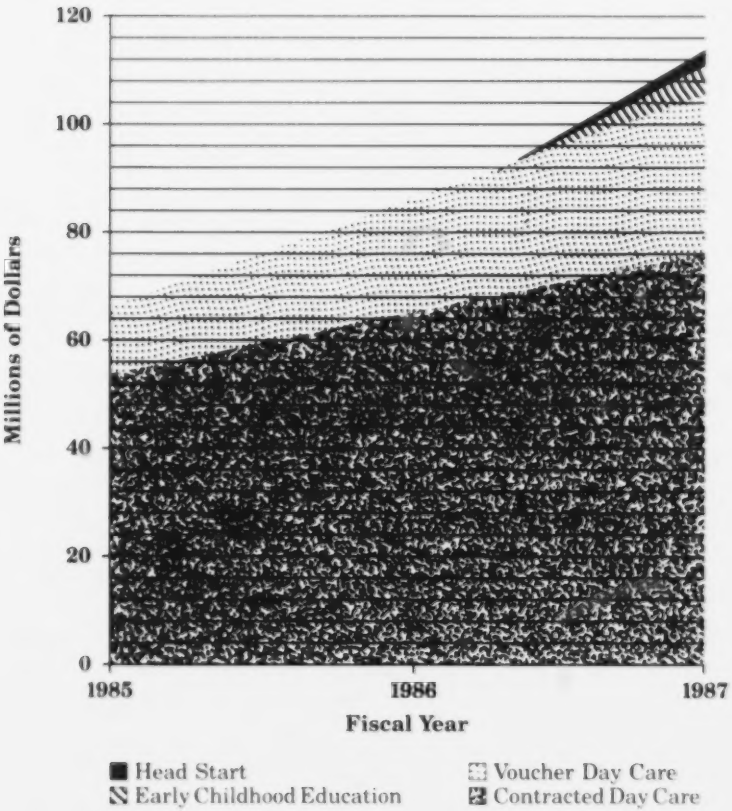
Widely recognized as a national leader in child care, Massachusetts appropriated a total of $160 million for all child care programs in Fiscal Year 1989, an increase of 137 percent in five years [Massachusetts Day Care Policy Unit, 1989]. According to some political observers, it is unlikely that the state will be able to continue increasing child care resources at this rate indefinitely. (Figure 3 shows the dramatic rise in funding from Fiscal Years 1985-87.) Future efforts in the state will have to emphasize the need for additional federal and private resources [Massachusetts Human Services Committee, 1988].

As mentioned, noteworthy features of the state's child care efforts include upgrading child care workers' salaries, increasing child care support for welfare recipients and the working poor, and initiating public/private partnerships to expand the overall number of child care providers. According to a recent report for the Massachusetts Affordability Task Force [*Caring for Our Common Wealth*, 1988], the availability of affordable child care is integral to the economic well-being of the state by increasing tax revenues, reducing welfare dependency as parents enter the work force, and aiding employers in recruiting and maintaining productive employees.

The report observes that, even in Massachusetts, a substantial gap exists between the need for child care and its availability. Only 42 percent of the eligible low-income families in the state receive state subsidies, yet the numbers of children in need of child care are rising. Providing universal, affordable, quality child care will take many years and involve many sectors of society. The report concludes that "if the Massachusetts economy is to continue to grow, the labor force must expand, and child care is the key to making this happen" [*Caring for Our Common Wealth*, 1988].

Figure 3.

State Expenditures for Child Care Services in Massachusetts



Source: *Caring for Our Common Wealth: The Economics of Child Care in Massachusetts* (Boston, Mass.: Executive Office of Human Services, Office for Children, June 1988).

Early Childhood Education in Washington

In Washington volatile economic conditions in the 1980s and a concern for the quality of the future work force have contributed to an educational reform movement emphasizing early childhood education [Peirce and Hagstrom, 1984]. The state's unemployment

rates historically have exceeded the national average. In 1986 the nation's jobless rate was 7 percent while Washington state's averaged 8.2 percent [*Statistical Abstract of the United States 1988*, 1987]. In addition, the state's high school dropout rate hit 24 percent in 1985 [Siegel, 1988].

In the 1980s the state's industrial economy suffered from a number of problems. The Washington Public Power Supply System closed several nuclear power plants, resulting in the loss of 6,000 jobs. With the nation's construction industry depressed, orders from Washington's timber industry declined. Layoffs at The Boeing Company, the state's largest private employer, affected jobs elsewhere and the state entered a recession [Washington Department of Community Development, 1988].

These conditions prompted a business group, the Washington Roundtable, to examine the state's economic outlook and to evaluate the education system's ability to supply future workers with the skills needed in a more diversified, complex, and competitive economic environment. The roundtable, a nonprofit research and policy development organization of corporate executives, provided the impetus for early childhood education policy development. In 1985, after 18 months of study, the group called for sweeping educational reforms.

Struck by Perry Preschool's projected long-term savings (mentioned in chapter three), the roundtable's top legislative priority was a state-funded program for at-risk preschoolers, modeled on the federal Head Start program [Washington Roundtable, 1988].

Governor Booth Gardner presented the Early Childhood Education Assistance Program (ECEAP) as enabling legislation to the legislature in 1985. Despite lack of revenues for new programs, the enabling legislation for ECEAP received bipartisan support and approval. The bill passed due to the support of the Washington Roundtable; the governor's influence; and active lobbying by a loose coalition of education reform advocates, leading legislators from both parties, Head Start providers, and citizen and community groups [Washington House of Representatives Education Committee, 1988].

Although the state's financial condition made funding of new programs problematic, the legislature appropriated $38,000 in planning monies for ECEAP in 1986. Another $2.97 million was approved for 1987, the program's first year of operation, during which 1,000 children were served. In 1988 2,047 were served under a $6 million state appropriation [Washington Department of Community Development, 1988].

The program was placed under the auspices of the Department of Community Development (DCD) for pragmatic as well as programmatic reasons. First, since Washington's Constitution requires the state to fully fund its basic education program, to have

placed ECEAP under the Board of Education would have created an entitlement that might have instigated a lawsuit asking for statewide implementation and financing of the new program. Second, legislators were reluctant to give the appearance of shifting funds away from K-12 programs to finance ECEAP. Third, potential conflicts among the public education system, private preschool providers, and the Head Start community also were mitigated by putting the administration of the program under a neutral body. Finally, having the program within DCD clearly emphasized the relationship between the economy and early childhood education [Washington Department of Community Development, 1988].

The goal of ECEAP is to enhance at-risk youngsters' opportunities for success in school. Legislation for the program called for social, health, nutritional, and cultural development in conjunction with educational services. In addition, parental involvement, considered essential to successful outcomes under Head Start, was mandated at a level equal to the requirements of the federal program. The legislation also specified that funds be used to expand services and not to supplant existing federal or state programs.

The Washington Roundtable originally proposed a preschool program for all low-income four-year-old children not served by Head Start. Largely due to state budget considerations, the governor and the legislature opted for a more modest proposal covering up to 4,000 Head Start-eligible four-year-olds who were not in early intervention programs. Priority was given to regions of the state with a high proportion of low-income families with preschool children. State regulations subsequently directed up to 60 percent of the funds available to counties where Head Start served 20 percent or fewer of the children eligible for the program. Ten percent of ECEAP slots are targeted for children of migrant and seasonal farm workers, farm families, and Indians whether living on or off a reservation.

To maximize potential funding sources for the program, lawmakers authorized DCD to accept donations from the private sector and other public sources. The department was directed to solicit support from business and industry for ECEAP [Washington House Bill 1078, 1985]. Department officials point out that local providers have taken advantage of a variety of services and contributions from private and public community sources under this option.

The legislation created an advisory committee to assist DCD in establishing ECEAP. Membership included parents as well as representatives of the offices of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, the Department of Social and Health Services, Head Start, school districts, and early childhood education staff preparation programs. Reflecting a national trend toward specificity in

legislative fiscal accountability and evaluation requirements, the original legislation set per pupil expenditure limits and outlined comparative performance outcome measures for the program.

The original legislation also required a follow-up report regarding the merits of continuing or expanding the program. The report was required to address monitoring issues, including the establishment of a system to measure "how the children completing this program compare to the average level, and to those at-risk students who do not have access to this program." The legislation was amended to require reports in odd-numbered years. Reimbursement limits of $2,700 per pupil also subsequently were removed to accommodate new program start-up costs and to allow flexibility in local program administration.

To meet the legislative evaluation requirements, DCD plans to follow a group of children through the fourth grade to determine the program's affect. These students' scores on achievement tests will be compared with statewide scores and with those of a peer group. In addition to standard test performance outcomes, a comparison of how the child functions in the family is planned.

DCD awards grants through competitive bidding to school districts, Head Start programs or private nonsectarian entities, nonprofit programs, and other community agencies that can demonstrate the ability to provide preschool programs that are appropriate for the children's developmental needs. A provision in the legislation allows the development of local programs geared to the community as well as to center-based and home-based care. In the current fiscal biennium, a variety of contractors are providing ECEAP services to 4,094 children in Washington. These contractors include six school districts, three local governments, a community college, a child care center, four community action agencies, and six nonprofit organizations. Of the 21 contractors, 76 percent also receive Head Start funds. DCD sets aside five percent of appropriated funds for evaluation and development and training of local staff [Washington Department of Community Development, 1988]. Teacher qualification requirements are more stringent than those required by Head Start [Marx and Seligson, 1988].

Coordination

Coordination among ECEAP, Head Start, the public school system, and other preschool programs was a repeated theme in the program's enabling legislation. To achieve this, the legislature prescribed the membership in the advisory committee and more recently addressed the issue of coordinating early childhood programs with child care services. In 1988 a child care coordinating committee was created to "provide coordination and communication between state agencies responsible for child care and early

childhood education services" and to administer a grants program for expanding such services [Washington Senate Bill 6118, 1988].

Summary

Washington's initiation of an early childhood program in the midst of a recession illustrates the strength of economic arguments in support of such programs. Given severe budget constraints, it is difficult to persuade lawmakers to finance new programs. The business sector, through the Washington Roundtable, however, contributed to make the existing cost-benefit data relevant to the legislature and the governor.

Since the program's beginnings in 1986, ECEAP has served 5,100 children. Currently, Head Start serves 6,300 children annually in the state compared with ECEAP's 2,047. As in Massachusetts, need still outweighs state program resources. In 1987 the number of income-eligible preschool children unserved by either ECEAP or Head Start in Washington totaled 21,182, according to the Office of Financial Management. A broad-based group of local and state interests continues to advocate statewide implementation and funding for ECEAP.

Funding for ECEAP has doubled from nearly $3 million in 1987 to $6 million per year in the 1987-89 biennial budget. DCD plans to submit a budget request of nearly $24 million to the legislature that, if funded, will serve at least 7,700 children during the upcoming biennium [Washington Department of Community Development, 1988].

Conclusion

Legislators in Massachusetts and Washington have devoted considerable attention to expanding child care and early childhood programs. In both states, economic considerations and broad-based coalition building contributed to the success of initiatives to expand programs, address issues of quality, and support families. Despite these states' leadership roles, public officials in both places admit that much more needs to be done to fill the gap in resources. As in other states, efforts to coordinate child care and early childhood education service delivery systems are just beginning in Massachusetts and Washington. It still is too early, of course, to determine the long-range impact of their recent initiatives. Their evaluation efforts, however, promise to contribute significantly to our knowledge on effective early childhood program policy.

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V

Conclusions and Policy Recommendations

State legislative activity on child care and early childhood education has increased dramatically in recent years. The growing interest in these issues on the state level has been sparked in part by an expanding recognition of the economic benefits of comprehensive child care and early childhood education policies. As the United States moves into the 21st century, the demand for competent workers will increase as the actual number of younger workers decreases. Demographers expect that women and minorities will make up nearly 80 percent of the nation's new workers, groups previously considered less productive and/or less prepared for work [Feistritzer, 1988]. As the composition of the work force changes to include more women, the need for child care will continue to grow. Child care also will be increasingly crucial to state efforts to train and employ welfare recipients. Early childhood education is also important to a sound economy because it provides members of the next generation of workers with a solid foundation of skills, competencies, attitudes, and behaviors that will ensure their success in the future.

In the most basic sense, the inability to find acceptable and affordable child care prevents parents from entering the work

force. For those workers who have children, inadequate child care can reduce productivity on the job by more absences from work, tardiness, and shortened work days. It also may increase the amount of nonproductive time at work.

Child care also is essential to parents in education and training programs. Child care enables people who are at risk of long-term dependency on public assistance to participate in and complete welfare-to-work programs successfully. For this population in particular, state experiences demonstrate that child care support is critical during their transition from training or education to long-term employment.

Regardless of whether parents are in the work force or in education and training programs, most seeking child care for their young children confront similar difficulties. Child care is difficult to find, the cost is high, the quality is inconsistent, and arrangements are often undependable and unstable. As discussed in earlier sections of this book, states have acted in diverse ways to assist families with minimizing or resolving their child care difficulties. All states, however, now consider child care a legitimate domain for legislative action.

Massachusetts' policies provide examples of a broad response to the child care needs of families at various economic levels. These policies reflect a commitment toward ensuring more affordable, more accessible, and higher-quality child care. They also directly link child care to two important social goals related to economic well-being: ensuring the availability of a productive work force to meet the needs of an expanding economy and promoting self-sufficiency by reducing dependence on public assistance.

States have responded to the growing evidence of the benefits of early childhood education on the potential academic success, future achievement, and productivity of preschool children deemed socially, economically, and educationally at risk. Some states' responses to early childhood education have been influenced by research findings indicating that state dollars invested in these programs can save money over the long run through reduced costs of special and remedial education, reduced spending on social welfare and criminal justice, and greater tax revenues and consumer spending as these at-risk children enter the labor force as productive and competent adults.

Washington's success in enacting its early childhood education legislation was influenced by the social and economic benefits attributed to these programs. Even within the context of a severely strained economy and a tight state budget, the business sector actively supported new appropriations for early childhood education. This support was particularly strong because of the connection between early childhood education programs and the quality of the

state's future work force. The legislature reinforced this link by putting the administration of the early childhood education programs under the Department of Community Development, rather than under either the education or social services departments.

The Role of State Legislators

As outlined in this book, state lawmakers have assumed a pivotal leadership role in improving early childhood programs in recent years. Legislators are involved in every aspect of policy and programming on child care and early childhood education. State lawmakers establish programs, determine target populations for services, review agency budgets, set appropriation levels and performance standards, provide regulatory and program guidelines, and advocate for coordination of child care and early childhood policies and programs.

A wide array of state policy options exists to improve child care and early childhood education programs. When considered together, they reflect a broad-based approach, the essential components of which include policies to:

- Guarantee consistency and high quality in early childhood programs, regardless of setting (e.g., child care center, public school, Head Start program, private nursery school, family day care home) through appropriate regulatory standards, teacher/provider training and qualifications, and program design;
- Reduce the costs of child care for parents;
- Increase the supply of child care and early childhood education services;
- Increase program accessibility for parents; and
- Promote private sector involvement so that the responsibility to assist families is shared between employers and the state.

Integrating Child Care and Early Childhood Education

As a result of the growing number of working mothers and the increased emphasis on early education, over half the young chil-

dren in this nation today spend a significant amount of their time in child care and preschool programs. All these children, whether they participate in either program, should receive valuable early learning experiences to provide a foundation for their intellectual, social, and emotional development in these nonfamily settings. In this respect, child care and early childhood education programs share common goals.

State early childhood education programs, although often serving children who also need child care, generally provide half-day preschool programs. These programs rarely are coordinated with child care to provide full-day care for families who need it. In addition, since early childhood education usually is considered a part of the education system and child care part of the social welfare system, discrepancies in regulation and quality often exist. More recently enacted state early childhood education legislation, however, does attempt to address these issues.

In the states, integrating child care and early childhood education policies into a coherent state policy for early childhood programs is a challenging task. It most frequently requires coordinating numerous agencies in separate child care and early childhood education service delivery systems; federal, state, and/or local administrative entities and funding streams; licensing agencies; teacher training institutions; resource and referral programs; and a variety of public and private providers [Grubb, 1988].

A number of states have attempted to address the difficulties of integration by creating state coordinating councils or advisory groups. To date, results from these coordinating mechanisms have been disappointing since many lack formal budget and oversight authority. Increasingly, states are attempting to define specific goals and objectives for these coordinating bodies. In South Carolina the Department of Education administers the state's preschool program, but all program plans must be approved by the interagency coordinating council. In Iowa the coordinating body retains considerable authority through its function of awarding project grants. Other states are discussing joint planning and training projects.

Suggesting another approach to coordination, Edward Zigler, director of the Bush Center in Child Development and Social Policy at Yale University, argues that the public schools could provide the infrastructure for coordinating early childhood programs including before- and after-school care, preschool care, provider training and parent support programs [Zigler, 1988]. A number of states, including Connecticut and Missouri, are experimenting with Zigler's Schools of the 21st Century model.

A variety of other approaches to coordination also are being considered in the states. New Jersey, for example, appropriated

$1 million specifically for expanded-day Head Start programs. New York is considering creating an office of early childhood programs to oversee all relevant programs. In all states coordination efforts are in the early stages of development and frequently are unique to the states' service delivery systems. Evaluation of these state efforts and those generated by the requirements of the Family Support Act of 1988 to coordinate child care services with other state early childhood programs should prove useful in determining successful models for the future.

As states look to the future, it is critical that policymakers consider child care and early childhood education policies as complementary elements of a broad approach to a state's economy. In the final analysis, it is our families and their children who will benefit from state policies that support child care and early childhood education. With this support, these families will reward the state and support its economy as the productive and self-sufficient citizens of today and tomorrow.

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